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ABSTRACT

This collection of 10 position papers represents one phase of an effort to design behavioral objectives for training programs for Teacher Corps team leaders. Floyd T. Waterman identifies tasks and needed competencies for the complete range of team leader activities. Richard W. Saxe notes the several meanings of systems approach as they apply to the various aspects of designing a training program. Charles C. Jung describes three kinds of problem-solving processes and identifies the prerequisites for using change processes. Jack Spiess reviews the different approaches to leadership, and suggests the applicability of concepts of leadership to the specific situation of Teacher Corps team leaders. Robert Chin and Herschel N. Hadley consider that the teaching team has two objectives: to accomplish its assigned task and to maintain itself as a group. Jerry J. Bellon deals with the task of the team leader functioning as a professional manager to develop and maintain a work environment which facilitates the attainment of organizational objectives. Wilford A. Weber defines some concepts of competency based teacher education and suggests appropriate roles for team leaders. Kenneth R. Howey maintains that there is a logical and necessary relationship between the roles of the team leader as a teacher of teachers and a teacher of pupils. Russell C. Doll suggests the type of training needed for the team leader. Louis J. Rubin defends the position that the teacher is the curriculum. (MBM)

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PERSPECTIVES ON THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER CORPS TEAM LEADER

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Team Leadership Development Project
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TEACHER CORPS EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL DEVELOPMENT BRANCH

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PREFACE

This is a collection of position papers prepared for the Team Leadership Development Project. The papers represent one phase of a more comprehensive effort to design behavioral objectives for training programs for Teacher Corps team leaders. They were prepared by persons highly qualified in one or another of the major role activities performed by team leaders. Although necessarily based upon the role of the team leader as presently conceived, the position papers lead to a more idealized version of what the role of the team leader could/should become. Other sources of data deal more directly with the current status of team leaders.

Primarily intended to serve as one piece of a Project, this collection in itself represents a rich resource for team leaders and those who would prepare persons to become team leaders. The papers should be helpful to directors of training programs for team leaders. Their content has helped to generate six Guides for Team Leader Training published under another cover by the Project. Those with an interest in the evolving leadership roles of teachers will find much to incorporate in their planning. Finally, persons in leadership roles at any level will profit from the insights intended for leaders of teaching teams.

In order to interpret the ten selections properly, readers should take note of three characteristics of the material presented:

1. The positions taken are not Teacher Corps policy.

2. The papers do not purport to describe current conditions.

3. The original manuscripts have in almost all cases been shortened and revised to avoid duplication.

Writers were in all cases informed about the mission of Teacher Corps and were sympathetic to the goals of Teacher Corps. However, they were selected because of acknowledged expertise in one particular role function of the team leader. They are clearly able to speak to this particular topic, but none would presume to suggest that his discussion should be interpreted as overall policy. The materials were prepared for study by others who were engaged in formulating objectives for a training program.

Writers attempted to suggest practices which were exemplary. Their focus was not on how to help team leaders be more effective in the particular activities they are now attempting so much as on how to be effective in activities they should be attempting. In the paper on a "systems approach," for example, the writer knows of no team leader anywhere who is presently behaving in the ways advocated. Nevertheless, it may be maintained that the

behavior suggested has important implications for training. If the argument for the advantages of changes is well grounded and applies to Teacher Corps team leaders, the suggestions should be considered. In some cases alternative strategies are suggested. Russell Doll, for example, when discussing the community role of the team leader, suggests how to make the team leader more effective or, as an alternative, how to attempt to see that someone else takes over some of the community activities now assigned to the team leader.

The editor has attempted to keep repetition to a minimum without detracting from the development of a writer's idea. Obviously, the writers are in possession of much more data in regard to their assigned topics than can be shared in these pages. Suggested readings will help indicate where additional information may be found. If the deletion of material detracts from a presentation, the editor accepts the blame. It was necessary to keep the role of the Teacher Corps team leader in focus, and this undoubtedly resulted in the omission of much valuable information included in the complete manuscripts as originally submitted.

The Advisory Committee has served in many ways. Some of them prepared papers found here. Others recommended that we secure the help of authors of other papers in the collection. All members or their alternates attended meetings. Others have given active support and counsel throughout the Project. This assistance is gratefully acknowledged.

Members of the Advisory Committee are: Mr. William Anderson, team leader, Canby, Oregon; Dr. Joseph Atkins, Louisville Public Schools; Mrs. Audrey Boone, Wilmington Public Schools; Miss Margaret A. Chambers, Chief, Program Branch, Teacher Corps; Dr. Roy Edelfelt, National Education Association; Dr. Abe Fischler, President, Nova University; Dr. Sam Hill, State Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina; Dr. Kenneth Howey, University of Minnesota; Dr. Charles Jung, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory; Mr. Manuel Montano, Director of Teacher Corps, University of the Pacific; Mr. Lee Peters, University of Massachusetts; Mr. David Selden, President, American Federation of Teachers; Dr. Evan Sorber, Temple University; Dr. Floyd Waterman, Director, Center for Urban Education, University of Nebraska--Omaha.

The authors of the position papers have shared their ideas with us, and we are grateful for this and for their permission to present them in this form. Authors have in all cases found ways to adjust to our rigid time schedule despite the press of other demands.

The Project staff and consultants need no expression of appreciation at this time. They are in the midst of the continuing effort to bring together data from several sources. It is hoped that sharing the position papers at this time will be helpful to team leaders and thus contribute to the success of the Teacher Corps program.

R. W. S.

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ORIENTATION TO A NEW ROLE:
IT ALL STARTS WITH THE TEAM LEADER

ABSTRACT

This is the first of a series of position papers dealing with the role and training of Teacher Corps team leaders. We shall identify tasks and needed competencies for the complete range of team leader activities. Subsequent papers will explore each of these in depth.

by

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ORIENTATION TO A NEW ROLE:
IT ALL STARTS WITH THE TEAM LEADER

By Floyd T. Waterman

Introduction

The American space program is an example of a project with a sense of mission which every employee seems to feel. There is, in fact, a "systems approach" to every phase of the space operations from the technology to the back-up operations including a constant flow of research data that is studied by persons so diverse as the dietitian to the design engineers of the space-craft itself. Seldom do public schools foster the same kind of feeling of being part of a team. Teachers pay scant attention to the activities of other teachers, especially those at different grade levels. Faculties come together for meetings in which certain administrative or curricular matters are discussed, and while some of these schools develop a "family-type relationship," the whole-team-feeling is rare indeed. As a rule, research efforts are almost nonexistent and seldom make a difference in what happens in the classroom.

The advent of team teaching and the development of ungraded schools has helped somewhat to change the "lone wolf approach" of so many teachers, but by and large, faculties do not feel that they belong to a total-team operation. As schools increasingly focus upon accountability, they are forced to examine their curricula, staffing patterns, and training programs. The various "learning corporations" are forcing schools to re-examine many longstanding practices. Perhaps, as a result, schools will truly become teams with the sense of mission found in the space program.

Supporting Institutional Change

As innovations in organization and curriculum occur, the school is changing from a factory-like program to a more individualized, more personalized, and hopefully, more relevant program. The development of multi-unit schools, portal schools, or restructured programs is rapidly forcing teachers, administrators, curriculum workers, and teacher educators to work together more like a team. The flow of federal money into education at all levels has been designed to foster change.

Teacher Corps, a program of the U. S. Office of Education, has become a vehicle for schools and universities to bring about changes in education. Indeed, Teacher Corps will not work with schools and universities unless there are definite commitments for a school focus, community involvement, and curricular change in both the schools and the universities. Interestingly, Teacher Corps has not been limited to the so-called "lighthouse" districts or to famous, major universities.

Changes brought about by Teacher Corps serve as a model for other programs interested in implementing new or different practices Over one hundred forty (140) school districts and eighty-seven (87) different colleges or universities in thirty-five (35) states have participated in some phase of Teacher Corps since 1966 when it started as part of the Higher Education Act. Change has not been without tension and strain in the Teacher Corps projects. Schools and colleges have been forced to examine their purposes and programs. Community persons have been involved in ever increasing numbers as part of the process of bringing about change in education.

The Team Concept

Teacher Corps has stressed the importance of field-centered and competency-based training programs and all participants in the program--the directors, school coordinators, team leaders, and teacher interns--are required to evaluate their roles, and to interact with representatives from the Office of Education, with the community, and with each other on all matters related to becoming agents of change to improve educational opportunities for low-income area children.

The Teacher Corps model is that of assigning a team (4-8) of young interns under the direction of a team leader to a school and to the school community. Some teams consist of the interns, teacher aides (sometimes from other federally financed programs such as Career Opportunities Program), and other teachers in the building. Sometimes the work of the team is supplemental in nature, while other teams have major responsibility for the instruction of children. An important concept of Teacher Corps is the team requirement. The Career Opportunities Program is patterned to a team structure as well because the history of teacher aides shows that the impact is lessened when aides are isolated and work on a "one-teacher/one-aide" basis. Teacher Corps interns become part of an instructional team within a school, but they are also part of a larger team of Teacher Corps working within the structure of the community and the school district to bring about changes within the university, the community, and in the school program. This "team" is the entire group of Corpsmen in a project. The experience of Teacher Corps with team building suggests that other team teaching efforts (i.e., differentiated staff, team teaching, Career Opportunities Program, trainers of teacher trainers) can be improved by working at the notion of team building as a continuous process and by helping members view one of their functions as that of team building.

Orientation and Re-Orientation

As organizational patterns have changed within schools (i.e., team teaching, differentiated staffing, multi-units), it has been important to work not only at team building but also at the orientation process. Fostering the notion of a "total team" or "systems" approach requires a new look at orientation to programs. Differentiated staffing forces principals as well as teachers to define and re-define their roles. Support personnel have more importance in such a staffing pattern. Teacher Corps has been able to make an impact because of its constant stress on helping others understand the new roles and the mission of the program.

The pressures brought by parents from the low-income communities in Teacher Corps projects caused much soul searching on the part of college and school administrators unaccustomed to involving "disinterested parents." Teacher Corps interns who came into public schools with a mission of reform and change often found themselves in conflict with other teachers. These teachers felt that they were already doing a good job and failed to see how they were out of touch with the community and its problems. Often, university professors found a new type of student in the Teacher Corps interns--disturbing students who challenged the course content and raised new questions. Principals were upset by "long-haired" interns who quickly found rapport with "unmotivated" children. Not all of the Teacher Corps efforts were successful, but the entire team (interns, team leaders, school people, and university people) was forced to re-examine schools, community involvement, and teacher education. The process resulted in an awareness that roles are never static. The process resulted in a new insight that "orientation" is not a pre-service activity. Orientation is not a "one shot" public-relations-type meeting held for beginning teachers on the lawn of the school headquarters.

Multiple Roles of Team Leaders

We shall examine the team leader's roles in terms of competencies required to carry out the various complex functions that are part of an internship in educational leadership. The Teacher Corps team leader is himself growing into a dynamic and challenging position and thus is in the process of becoming. The team leader's roles involve several related and overlapping functions. Hopefully, universities and school systems will recognize that they are dealing with a set of training experiences for both the team leader and the members of his team.

Frequently the team leader's internship needs are ignored by both the school district and the university. There are no models he can follow, and he is usually overworked and often misunderstood. Only recently have Teacher Corps programs recognized the need for continual orientation and for team building as processes essential to participants and program.

For purposes of analysis and discussion, a breakdown of overlapping roles follows. Five general roles are identified for discussion:

1. Planning for team involvement
2. Fostering community interaction
3. Developing teaching skills
4. Fostering skills of analysis in teaching
5. Counseling and advising.

Planning for Team Involvement

The role of planning for team involvement is basic to the orientation function of Teacher Corps. In its most simple form, the planning function involves scheduling the time and effort of the Teacher Corps team. More complex aspects of planning for team involvement will include the processing of data on whether teammates have achieved certain teaching competencies. The team leader's role in planning for program continuity is also a complex planning skill.

The team leader and his team are part of an effort to bring about improvement in educational programs. Each Teacher Corps project has a particular program focus or direction in which it is supposed to be going. The team leader has a responsibility to maintain that program focus (i.e., developing personalized curriculum) and see how each activity, every team of interns, and the total project relates to that program direction.

Orientation--A Continuing Process

Teacher Corps has found that the initial orientation of interns, of school personnel, and of team leaders is not sufficient. People in the program must realize that their membership in a teaching team also includes membership in an overall team for an entire project. To miss the concept of change and innovation within the context of providing improved educational opportunities for children in low-income areas is to miss the purpose of Teacher Corps. While the project seeks to conduct an orientation early in pre-service, the process of understanding the purposes of the program (called "orientation" for lack of a better term) is never completed.

The team leader, more than any other individual in Teacher Corps, knows the necessity to explain, define, and re-define the work of his team. Teachers in the building want to know what the team is up to and why. The team leader, having recently served in the classroom, is sensitive to the feelings and concerns of teachers. The team leader is often caught between the university and the public school, and he has had to do much searching, explaining, and in the process, has learned something about the nature of open and direct confrontation. The team leader is faced with frustrations of value conflict, inadequate preparation for his task, and learning how to deal with problems as diverse as the "generation gap" to arbitration and public relations.

Program Focus and Continuity

Each project identifies within the guidelines of the Teacher Corps, a program focus. That focus might be one of developing an ungraded primary unit, providing for continual parental involvement in early childhood programs, or for developing a pattern of differentiated staff. There will no doubt be several program-related foci. For example, there might be a concern for curriculum revision, changes in field-centered teacher education, better use of technology in teaching and several other foci, but each is related to a general concern to bring about program changes and innovations in education at all levels. The importance is change at the university level related to change at the school level.

In most cases, the team leaders are drawn from the teachers in the local schools in the low-income area. Where the low-income pupil population represents a minority group, major efforts are made to recruit members of that minority for both interns and team leaders. Multi-racial teams have the greatest potential for impact.

The team leader is presumed to be a person with a personal commitment to the purposes of Teacher Corps. He must be a strong person willing to attempt changes and take risks. He should not be primarily seeking administrative promotions or principalships because he presumably has a new vision of the nature of authority in the school setting. His primary concern is that of offering better educational opportunities to children and the personal and professional growth of team members. He is interested in and learning about curriculum revision; he has a commitment to involve team members and community people in decision-making.

Team leaders who bring to their internship the kind of commitment suggested above will be leaders in institutionalizing change and innovation. Once a total community team has been formed and begins to function well, the processes of constant curriculum revision and responsiveness to the needs of pupils will become the rule rather than the exception. To grasp the concepts of program continuity is to understand the nature of continuous involvement and orientation.

Team leaders have a major responsibility to help principals and teachers understand the purposes of Teacher Corps. Many teachers (indeed many professors) do not understand the nature of field-centered professional training nor do they understand the value of a work-study arrangement characteristic of many of the new training programs in education. It is the team leader's responsibility to help others to see the various dimensions of Teacher Corps.

Developing Schedules for the Team

Depending upon their perceptions of Teacher Corps and the team's purposes, teachers make requests of the team leader, the principal, or the interns themselves. Part of the team leader's role is to develop criteria to govern whether the team assumes certain tasks. Team leaders will need to "negotiate" with fellow teachers, administrators, and with members of the team to determine schedules that are flexible yet provide for continuity. There is a need for a well balanced type of experience in both the school and in the community. Opportunities for interns to try new ideas in teaching must be provided; yet children's needs must be the major concern. Protecting time for community involvement and for interns to study the teaching-learning process is a task of the team leader. Naturally, members of the team will need to be involved in the decision-making process and will need to plan for their own involvement.

Planning Competencies

Planning skills are a complex set of relationships that must be continually studied and fostered. Interns and team leaders must become experts in the process of planning. Time is lost when there is lack of direction in

meetings or in teaching sessions. The value of clearly defined educational objectives must be recognized, but it is by no means the only dimension of planning necessary for the successful team. Planning enters into every phase of the Teacher Corps program including the college and community components.

While it is possible to distinguish between competencies and behaviors, the line of distinction is often a fine one. For purposes of this paper, we use "competencies" to imply skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary to implement certain behaviors that are part of the role definitions for the team leader. If we say that planning and orienting are both behaviors illustrating a role function, then we must search out those particular competencies that enable the team leader to accomplish such behaviors. The difficulty of the task is overwhelming! Overlapping and ambiguity are unavoidable and must be recognized in what follows.

The tasks of orientation and planning for team involvement are highly dependent upon the team leader's competencies in human relations (or communication techniques) competencies. Organizational style and cognitive powers are also part of the competencies that must undergrid the behaviors associated with orientation and planning. Basically, all competencies can be reduced to the major categories of communication and technical knowledge, but these skills are threads that weave through the entire fabric of human endeavor.

Human Relations Skills

One cannot say that the person with "poor human relations" does not have competencies of planning. What the individual plans is closely associated with his perception of his own worth and that of others as well. The team leader may plan for his team rather than with the team, and he may attempt to regiment the life of the team members as well as his own, but such an individual is not implementing the important concept of team building which is an integral part of effective school programs.

In order to develop the kind of "human relations" desire for the planning role of the team leader, an individual must be sensitive to people. He must be able to relate to persons of different racial or ethnic backgrounds, and he must deal in a positive manner with persons at all levels of the educational hierarchy. He must truly understand the dynamics of poverty and must deal with value conflicts. He must have the organizational and cognitive skills to deal with complex problems. He must have a sense of humor. He must be able to keep confidences and be supportive, yet he must have the communication skills to directly confront individuals and groups with issues and problems.

Knowledge of the group techniques and group process procedures is essential. Team leaders must be able to deal with uncertainty and a lack of "line authority" without insecurity about their jobs.

Communication Techniques

Communication skills are part of the general area of human relations, but the ability to speak well, to develop logical arguments, and the ability to "negotiate" for the team and with the team is critical for the team leader in all roles, but particularly in planning. Many of the group process techniques related to problem solving, problem posting, analysis of argument, brainstorming, and others will be discussed by colleagues in another section of this report.

The ability to write well and knowing when to write helps the team leader in planning. The team leader who writes detailed plans for his team without conferring with team members may awaken to the fact that his rapport with team members has deteriorated.

Personal Styles and Planning

The concept of individual differences applies to adults as well as to children, and while there are some conventions in planning and in organization, there is also much latitude for personal or individual style.

Fostering Community Interaction

An important and almost unique element of the Teacher Corps program is involvement of the community. Unlike most teacher education programs that assign student teachers to a school and a specific teacher, Teacher Corps assigns interns to the school and to the community served by the school. Hence, Teacher Corps teams are required to participate in a variety of community activities. The team leader fosters community work by example and by general guidance to team members. Again, the skills of planning, relating to persons of low socio-economic backgrounds, and communicating with multi-racial groups are important. Care must be taken to avoid becoming pseudo social workers or agents of social action. Teachers must understand the community and its dynamics to relate to the community. However, a more important reason for spending part of the Teacher Corps internship in the community is the need to involve parents meaningfully in the educative process and to recognize the contribution of the community.

Schools have often failed to recognize the legitimate role of parents in the educative process. This is especially true in low income areas where the mythology says that parents "aren't interested in education." Teacher Corps teams may be found organizing parent volunteers, working with other classroom teachers in a "meet the parent" meeting, teaching aides to help in the library, organizing Head Start classes, or starting tutoring programs. Indeed teachers must find ways to foster adult education, and to engage both children and adults in the tutoring processes. Classes on understanding "new math" might be organized to get parents more involved with their children's education. The team leader's personal example as well as his organizational skills are important assets in carrying out the role of fostering community work.

Again, competencies in the areas of communication and human relations are critical factors. Technical knowledge and specific skills undergird all of the competencies of the team leader; but there is much in the area of technical knowledge about demographic data, employment information, and knowledge of political structure and agencies within the community that a team leader should know.

Sensitivity to Community Desires

The team members must learn to be alert to the wishes of a community and, when appropriate, respond to them. The team leader will need to help team members differentiate between social action type activities and educative activities. Cooperation with welfare workers, social case workers, and anti-poverty groups (i.e., VISTA) is important, but Teacher Corps teams must be involving parents in school activities and working toward fostering education for adults and for children.

Besides the direct involvement in the schools, other examples of meaningful community participation might be a Teacher Corps sponsored "Festival of the Child" or an Afro-American Famous Persons exhibit; a book fair; a Mexican-American Dance Festival, or an Indian Achievement Day. The team leader's organizational and planning skills come into play in sponsoring projects of this type, but organizational skills plus technical knowledge will be required to establish information clinics, adult education centers, or tutoring projects.

Community and School Leadership

Traditional approaches to parent-teacher organizations in low-income areas have often failed because of the attitudes of teachers toward low-income area parents. Many parents will require much training and assistance in conducting meetings and chairing committees. These are organizational skills that the team leader and his Teacher Corps team can help to impart to community residents in an atmosphere of trust and confidence-building experience. The lead teacher on a teaching team has the same kinds of opportunities whether working in an affluent or low-income area. Clinic teachers would do well to seize upon the community dimension of a teacher's preparation and help to get students more meaningfully involved with community personnel. Increasingly, schools (particularly Teacher Corps projects) are employing community coordinators who are housewives or residents of the low-income areas. Experience has shown that these community coordinators are able to make genuine contributions to the training of interns and school personnel. Clinic teachers, college professors, and team leaders would do well to recognize such community people as valuable resources and genuine partners in the processes of teacher education.

The parents of low-income area pupils (and other parents as well) often have special knowledge about the community, about children, and about the communications between the schools and the community to help the teaching team accomplish its work in the schools and in the community. The sensitivity of the team leader to persons of different racial background is critical to

the competencies of human relations that help to implement the role of fostering community involvement. Parents can help the team members by serving as "cultural tutors" and explaining the values, customs, and culture of the people in the community.

Competencies for Fostering Community Involvement

Essentially, the competencies of human relations (or communication), planning or organization, and technical knowledge (largely sociological in nature) are those required to implement the roles of the team leader with respect to the community. Knowledge of resources and proper approaches of the appropriate agencies or persons is vital, but some of the data-gathering techniques (interviewing, case study methods) and knowledge of demographic matter are also important. It is important that all of the technical knowledge be utilized in such a way that people feel the team is working with the community rather than on it. Many residents of low-income areas feel they have supported too much "research" and seen too little in terms of genuine involvement. They feel no sense of partnership with the schools. Indeed, they feel "walled out" and all persons in educational leadership positions would do well to contrive meaningful ways to come into productive contact with the community which is supposed to be served by the educational institution.

Developing Teaching Skills

The competencies and skills of the team leader in teaching roles are readily agreed upon by persons in teacher education. Nobody can argue against the importance of the team leader, the lead teacher, or the clinic teacher having at least the skill and abilities of an outstanding teacher. The team leader must be able to teach children but must also relate to adults in such a way that he can help the team member (whether aide, intern, student teacher) grow in teaching competencies. It is one thing to identify certain aspects of theory and instruction, but quite another to be able to show an adult what the team leader can do with children. However, an over-dependence upon demonstration behaviors has limited potential in developing independence of the intern. Certainly, the team leader should lead, guide, and help interns in teaching but should not expect emulation or denial of one's own style of teaching.

As teacher education programs move toward field-centered and competency-based training, it becomes increasingly important for the team leader to identify initial achievement of minimal competencies. The development of an intern's professional profile will become important and team leaders will become a source of data for analysis and planning training experiences for interns.

Multi-Dimensional Roles in Teaching

Teaching is often viewed only in terms of the more didactic behaviors of questioning, structuring, giving directions, evaluating, reacting, and responding. Closer examination of the nature of teaching reveals that

teaching is primarily interaction--many specialized types of interaction. Teaching involves certain administrative functions--record-keeping procedures for the classroom, setting up routines, and distributing materials to pupils. Teaching has a guidance and counseling dimension that is specialized interaction. When teachers are listening to children's problems, conferring with parents, resolving conflicts with other pupils, they are performing a guidance function of teaching. Teaching roles include the didactic behaviors of developing content or implementing curricula through the pedagogical moves suggested above, but teaching also involves evaluating pupil performance and determining the grades or placement of students.

In each of these functions, there is an interplay between pupils and teacher, teachers and parents, teachers and other adults in the building, and an interaction with materials and the planned curricula. Interns and beginning teachers need to realize the complexity of teaching roles as their first step in the process of becoming a teacher. The planning skills mentioned above are an integral part of the role of the team leader.

Developing Educational Objectives

Certainly planning for teaching requires the ability to state objectives in such a way that they give direction and meaning to both the children and the teacher. Teachers flounder in the classroom because they have no sense of direction and their purposes are unclear and, hence, their procedures are ill-defined. Team leaders will meet great resistance from their team members as they suggest the need to learn how to write behavioral objectives. Despite this reluctance, the team leader should persist in helping interns to gain skill in identifying instructional objectives. Team leaders will often need practice and refresher courses themselves, but helping interns identify and specify their objectives also simplifies the planning of teaching strategies and evaluation.

Teaching Procedures and Activities

It is obvious that the team leader's experience in teaching children will serve him well as he attempts to demonstrate for interns or when he teaches interns to plan and design teaching strategies. Developing appropriate teaching strategies is not merely imparting a bag of tricks or methods to use with children. Rather, it involves careful examinations of purposes in the light of students, local conditions, and materials available to the classroom or to the teaching team. The skills of questioning, leading discussions, involving pupils, and organizing groups all take thoughtful planning and repeated practice.

Teachers must be made conscious of the cognitive skills of children and should try increasingly to develop critical thinking. Critical thinking and use of the higher mental processes will not happen when children are subjected only to solicitations that are simple "Yes, No" questions. How can children develop their cognitive powers when they are encouraged merely to recall and repeat simple facts in a catechistical ritual? Team leaders will need to know some of the basic research on children's thinking and share this knowledge with interns. This skill is particularly important in low-income

areas where children are so often subjected only to the "listening" experience in school. Children cannot learn to listen when they have not learned how to talk and how to think. Listening is an active cognitive process quite different from the absence of noise. Teachers should spend less time ordering children to come to order. The "ordering" needed in ghetto schools is the kind of ordering that comes when children are able to categorize, analyze, and utilize the data around them.

Classroom Control

Many interns become concerned about classroom control after they have lost the ability to achieve it. Team leaders will need to help their team members learn how to plan for learning which eliminates the need for controlling through "disciplinary" measures. Engaging activities that challenge children's powers of reason and involve them in meaningful ways serve as the best prevention of disorder. Team leaders will need to help interns develop routines, plans for moving from one authority to another, and proper utilization of educational resources. Developing a sense of fairness, a sense of humor, and expecting a high but realistic level of performance from children will go a long way toward creating and maintaining self-discipline in children.

Utilization of Media and Materials

Team leaders will need to use media well in their own instruction to encourage proper use by team members. If team leaders are proficient in the use of mechanical teaching devices, they can help team members plan for good use of materials. Planning skills are again essential in the development of this competency in interns, but team leaders must set the example and know why materials are used. Team leaders should have a vast fund of knowledge about theory of utilization and some ability to develop criteria for various kinds of instructional materials. Selection and evaluation of instructional media and materials must be a major concern to the team leader. Knowledge of resources within the school, system, and within the city is essential. The team leader must have research and library skills. Induction into action research should be a goal that every team leader has for the members of his team.

Developing Curriculum

Team leaders have a role in helping team members learn something about curriculum development. Interns may be quickly interested in changing curriculum when they see opportunities to increase social awareness of pupils, make cultural and ethnic studies more meaningful, and to try out their notions of curriculum and teaching. The team leader working with either pre- or in-service teachers, must realize that curriculum development and action research can best be accomplished on a sustained basis with a team of teachers on site in the school building. This is a capability of the Teacher Corps team structure.

Evaluating Instructional Activities

Evaluation procedures for testing achievement, pre-testing before presenting new material, and the entire range of evaluation skills can best be conveyed to teachers on-the-job with direct experience in use and interpretation of evaluative instruments. Evaluation of lessons is not limited to the use of paper and pencil tests and the development of skill in evaluation techniques is a major concern of each team. The team leader will need to have basic knowledge in this area and should also know resource persons. Evaluation of teaching effectiveness is the focus of another set of competencies of the team leader discussed below.

Technical Knowledge and Teaching Skills

In the other roles of the team leader, we stressed organizational and planning skills and human relation skills. However, the technical knowledge required to meet the competencies of fostering teaching skills is staggering. The team leader must be a student of teaching strategies; he must know about curriculum development, and certainly he must possess both the personality and skill to show interns how to teach as well. All of this competency requires communication skills and great technical knowledge. Truly the team leader must set the example by developing into a scholar-practitioner.

Fostering Skills of Analysis

The role of fostering, in the emerging teacher, skills of analysis of his teaching is indeed challenging. Team leaders must possess many skills and become students of the teaching act. Team leaders must know some of the basic research related to analysis of teaching, be familiar with at least one or two of the systematic approaches to studying teaching, and know the technical skills and media available to help in the process of analysis. Moreover, the team leader will be required to utilize all of his human relations abilities and communication skills in meeting this competency.

Knowledge of Research on Teaching

The early efforts to study the teaching act are far from accomplished efforts, but they do represent critical technical knowledge that the team leader should possess. Knowledge of Bales interaction recording techniques, Bellack's pedagogical moves, or Flanders' System of interaction analysis is important as the foundation of skills to be used, modified, and taught to interns. We hold no brief for any of the existing systems or schema but some effort to categorize, organize, and analyze data from the teaching episodes is critical. Perhaps teachers can develop their own schema or systems, but they must first have enough experience with one of the existing systems before they create their own.

Objective Means of Data Gathering

The team leader will not be able to help interns to analyze their teaching unless he has developed skill in using objective means for data gathering. The use of the video-recorder, the audio-recorder, an interaction matrix, observation notes, represent different approaches that will

be reserved for other papers. Suffice it to say that the team leader should utilize several different kinds of ways to gather data. A simple series of photographs taken during a teaching session can help the intern to see what he was doing. The object of data gathering is to help the emerging teacher become involved in the process of analysis and evaluation of his own teaching.

Some of the techniques for data gathering are also techniques for practice and development of teaching skills. Micro-teaching techniques may be used to introduce teaching skills, provide for practice under supervision, observation of data on video tape for re-teaching after analysis, and additional practice sessions in small, controlled groups of children where error is not traumatic. Use of some simulated teaching situations (teaching laboratories) on film, computer, paper, or in role-playing situations, makes it possible to help interns analyze teaching procedures and to practice skills as well. The team leader must be knowledgeable about the whole range of technical aides for objective recording and teaching of skills.

Supervision Practices

The key to the team leader's work is found in supervision. Supervision is enlightened teaching followed by supportive feedback and analysis. The team leader must develop competencies in utilizing the resources suggested above, but in addition he must develop some kind of conceptual framework for supervision. The team leader is not an inspector or evaluator in the sense of "authority over" an intern. Hopefully, he can be relieved of final responsibilities related to college grades, too. The team leader's most effective supervisory role is exercised when he is able to evaluate the intern's work solely for the sake of professional improvement. Team leaders need to seek out (or develop) a type of supervision that is supportive, resourceful, and nonthreatening.

Team leaders can be helped by clinical approaches to supervision or by schema for analyzing interns' teaching[1]. Team leaders need to think about the team member's various roles (student, teacher, member of team, etc.) and gather data to help both the supervisor and the intern to understand better at which stage of development interns are functioning and, hence, the kind of helps, training exercises, and commitments that must occur for improvement to result from supervision.

Conferring Skills

The human relations and communications skills of the team leader become extremely important in the development of skills for conferring. The supervisory conference should provide an objective base for discussion of specific teaching performance. The conference requires preparation by both the intern and the supervisor and must eventuate in some definite plans or commitments for changed behavior in subsequent teaching, or it is wasted. Many teachers express extreme frustration over so-called supervisory visits because they

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[1]See bibliography for some specific references on clinical supervision plus the Brilhart supervision schema for interns.

learn nothing from them. Eventually, all teachers can be helped to seek genuine feedback on their teaching performance if they know that the purpose of the feedback is to be helpful and supportive. Hence, the importance of team leaders operating without a dependence upon authority other than demonstrated competence in teaching, in human relations, and in supervision as defined above.

Counseling and Advising Roles

The team leader, like the classroom teacher, has a guidance function associated with his teaching role. The guidance and counseling function should not be confused with the more specialized counseling role performed by a trained guidance worker or school psychologist. The stress on guidance and counseling for team leaders is at a much less complex level, and they need to recognize when they should call for more qualified help. Most of the teaching teams should have access to guidance workers, to psychologists, and even a psychiatrist.

The essence of Teacher Corps internships is to be found in the team-building or "group" spirit of a team. The team structure helps interns reinforce each other and develop valuable peer evaluations. On the other hand, the group pressures and mere dynamics of human relationships within a team cause tension, and the team leader must recognize when to break meetings into informal, non-psychological T-groups to deal with feelings, attitudes, and reactions, without deep probing discussions.

Counseling Interns

As young, energetic people enter the schools and the community, they may have value conflicts or reactions to poverty conditions that require discussions with the team leader or with more specialized professionals. The team leader will want to have frequent individual conferences or discussions with interns to determine how things are going personally and professionally. Sometimes matters of money, housing, college classes, or building conflicts are of concern to the interns, and they must feel that they can come to the team leader for initial help.

Advising Functions

Seldom is it appropriate for the team leader to embark upon academic advisement of a student without consulting with the appropriate university officials. Program directors, school coordinators, and academic advisers at the university should be the team leader's first point of contact. There are other advising or counseling relationships that might come out of informal conversations with interns.

Many of the advising functions of the team leaders take place with other teachers on the team or in the building. The team leader will need to confer frequently with teachers where interns are placed for some of their direct experiences with children. Working with community personnel may also necessitate advising mothers on procedures to obtain services within the school or a particular agency.

Team Meetings

Team meetings are often planning sessions or discussions of particular teaching procedures. They may sometimes become avenues for examination of feelings, values, and problems. The informal T-group approach suggested above can become the means for both feeling resolution and problem solving. Certainly the team leader will be aware of various problem-posting and problem-solving techniques for use in team meetings. Exploring common problems in teaching or in the other roles of team members can be a productive use of team meetings. Role-playing and other group process techniques can be helpful to the team leader in meetings.

Planning skills are critical for conducting good team meetings. The team leader will need to plan a certain degree of structure, but care must be taken to allow flexibility and an openness at all times. The feelings, concerns, and needs of the team members should be the guidelines which dictate the planning of team meetings.

Team Leader Competencies and Enabling Behaviors

Throughout this discussion, we have listed certain skills, attitudes, and training needed by team leaders. Most of the skills and attitudes listed are essentially enabling behaviors or activities that demonstrate the team leader's competency. The competencies may be broadly defined as communication skills (including human relations and group process skills) and technical knowledge of a specialized nature. The object of those communication skills is the orientation to the teaching act, to the total-school setting, and to the team building that characterizes the program.

The competencies have been divided into overlapping sub-competencies that arise out of, or are demonstrated by, the enabling role functions described as planning for team involvement, fostering community interaction, developing teaching skills, fostering skills of analysis, and counseling and advising. Technical knowledge and communication competencies undergird the whole range of roles suggested for the team leader. The process of role definition, however, is one that must be viewed as an ongoing challenge. The danger of cataloging competencies in a general way is that they appear to be similar to those required for any complex task. Yet endless listing of sub-competencies results in an unmanageable group. We take the position that these enabling behaviors (or roles) characterize the team leader's functions.

The leadership roles in other teacher internships might well examine this model for the lead teacher in a teaching team, a resource person working in several public schools, or as a clinic teacher on joint school university appointment, to prepare both student teachers as well as in-service teachers. For too long, teacher education programs have ignored the matter of preparing successful classroom teachers as coaches or leaders of young adults working in teams with a total school-wide orientation.

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A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO DESIGNING A TRAINING PROGRAM FOR TEAM LEADERS

ABSTRACT

The several meanings of systems approach will be noted especially as they apply to the various aspects of designing a training program. One usage--that of taking into account all aspects of the significant internal and external environment of team leaders--will be extended and used to generate representative behavioral objectives.

by

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A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO DESIGNING A TRAINING PROGRAM FOR TEAM LEADERS

By Richard Saxe

Introduction

Sometimes a concept and new terminology help us to view things from an improved perspective. This certainly seems to be one probable benefit of the "systems approach" and its accompanying new forms.

Before we consider some of the special meanings carried by the term "system" in regard to problems of planning and management, it would be well to consider briefly some of the connotations ordinarily associated with the word. Many readers will have learned "by heart" the systems of the body (a statement that in itself suggests a confusion between functions of the circulatory and nervous systems). Some of us encountered systems for playing the horses. Others, in more elegant circumstances, discovered systems for playing bridge. Both of these--horses and bridge--seemed to constitute a kind of theory. None of the technical meanings of system today actually can be equated to theories although occasionally they may be referred to in this fashion.

We are surrounded by systems: telephone systems, Dewey decimal systems. We are part of a social system within a solar system engaged in a Sisyphean task of trying to beat the system. And those of us who can put together enough quarters to become eligible will find our penultimate reward in the Social Security System or more likely in some pension system.

In view of this background of different shades of meaning, it would, indeed, complicate our lives if we were required to learn new sets of terms "by heart" as we did for the systems of the body. At this time it does not seem essential to master a new taxonomy so much as to understand the process of systems thinking. The systems approach is still developing, and it is the second underlined word--approach--which will be most helpful just now. A systems approach, in current technical usage, means to consider the whole of a phenomenon in all of its contexts and relationships with all of its parts.

Some of the several forms of conceptualizing and discussing a systems approach are operations research, systems analysis, general systems theory, systems engineering, cybernetics, input-output analysis, computer simulation or computer science, and several others. Procedures of some of these forms, e.g., PERT and PPBS, have become ubiquitous in government and institutional planning. A growing literature is already available to explain the particular characteristics of systems concepts. For our purposes, this review of

the literature can be delayed. We need merely utilize the all inclusive nature of systems thought to help bring order to the indeterminate situation of team leaders. We need not apologize for the absence of a precise formulation of systems approach since the whole area is not yet well defined.

The particular usage of systems approach which will be most helpful as a general guide may be likened to a problem solving or curriculum building process which begins at the level of general objectives and then develops a plan which considers all important relationships of the objectives. This same concept of systems approach was recently applied to the task of designing a new program of teacher education.[1]

Systems of the Team Leader

The first and probably most crucial phase of this system approach is the careful study which generates the objectives of the program. Using a systems approach to designing a program to train team leaders requires a careful study of all important elements in the (team leader) system. Generally, these elements will be people or groups, significant others in terms of their relationship to team leaders.

We begin this study with the team leader in the elementary school building. We shall first focus upon the teaching team as a system. Then, in order to get at other relationships of the team leader, we shall focus on the school building as a system. Other analyses will take us out of the building in order to attend to the community and university roles of team leaders.

The Teaching-Team System

The teaching-team system includes all those who make up the team of children and adults who are grouped together for the purpose of educating the children assigned to the team. There are a myriad of ways to organize teams, but the usual grouping will include the team leader, some other teachers, interns, and aides. It will probably also include student teachers, parent volunteers, and special teachers. Schematically, we can represent one teaching team system by the following:

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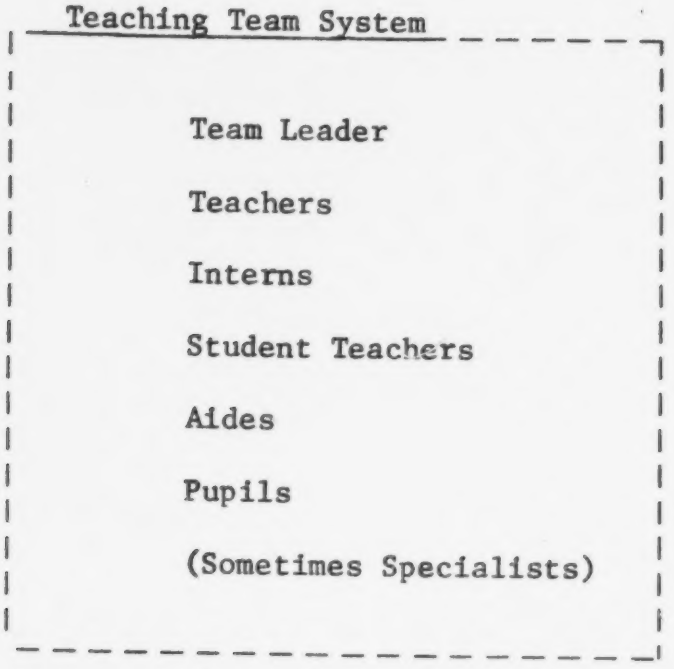
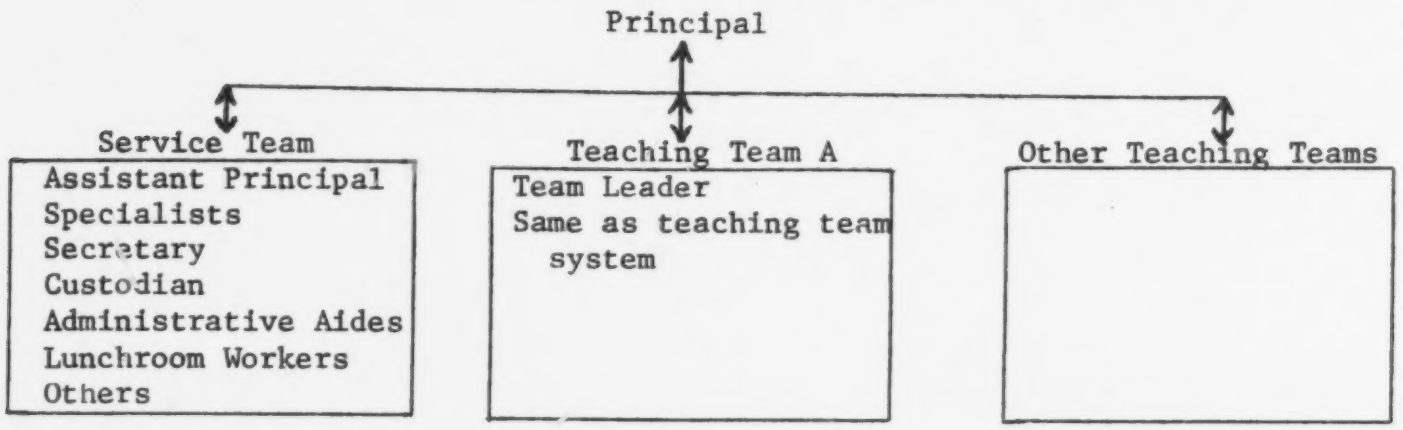
[1]See Educational Comment, 1969: Teacher Education in Context. University of Toledo, 1969.



The team leader is the person primarily responsible for providing the leadership to maximize the efforts of children and adults on the team. This entails organization of the curriculum, materials, personnel, and space. It requires a sensitivity to the feelings of others and a real desire to develop each to his fullest potential. Much will be said about the role of the team leader in this system in other position statements. This leadership is the primary function of the team leader. A behavioral objective typical of the group relating to this system is: The team leader will know the location of each pupil on his team at any given time of the school day. Another objective referring to teachers will suggest how other objectives need to be formulated for the other members of the teaching team. It is: The team leader will demonstrate by his assignments that he is aware of the strengths (and weaknesses) of teachers on the team.

The School Building System

Although it has been helpful to refer to the teaching team as a system, it may be considered one of several sub-systems which when combined make up the school building system. This building system would include the principal, other team leaders, specialists, all the teachers, all the pupils, other personnel assigned to the several teaching teams, secretaries, custodians, lunchroom attendants. The building system is represented schematically below:

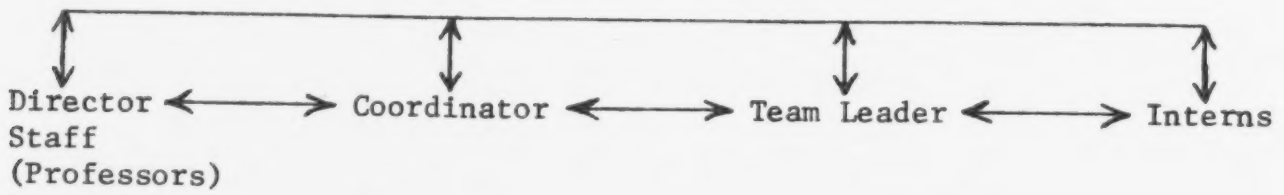


Readers will realize this is a simplistic treatment. Other writers will describe various structures and superstructures to coordinate the teams (units) within the school. Within this relationship the team leader must coordinate activities of his team with those of the others. He must arrange for assistance from the service team and plan for the optimum progress of pupils on his team throughout the entire school program. In a recent study of a multi-unit (one version of team teaching) school the writer found that there was much evidence of within-team cooperation, yet little or no evidence of inter-team cooperation. The self-contained classroom had been replaced by the team-contained team. Invisible team boundaries must be permeable for pupil mobility and teacher cooperation. Team leaders work with the principal to encourage and institutionalize this openness. Team leaders are an important point of tangency between teaching teams.

An objective for team leaders within the building system is: The team leader will confer with the principal at least once a week concerning the progress of his team.

The Teacher Education System

Our discussion to this point might suffice as an overview of the minimum essentials of a building system made up of teaching team systems, were it not for the special elements required by Teacher Corps legislation. The first additional system mandated by Teacher Corps guidelines can be aptly named the teacher education system. Unlike the other systems analyzed above, this is not a hierarchical system included within the walls of a single location. This is a special purpose system which cuts across other system boundaries to create a new, loosely formed, temporary system. It includes the Teacher Corps director at the cooperating university, some members of his staff, some professors (usually), the coordinator for the school system, interns, other team leaders. Sometimes the principal is included. As we shall see later, it is important that the principal be a member of this cross-system, temporary teacher education system. This system is represented in the diagram below:

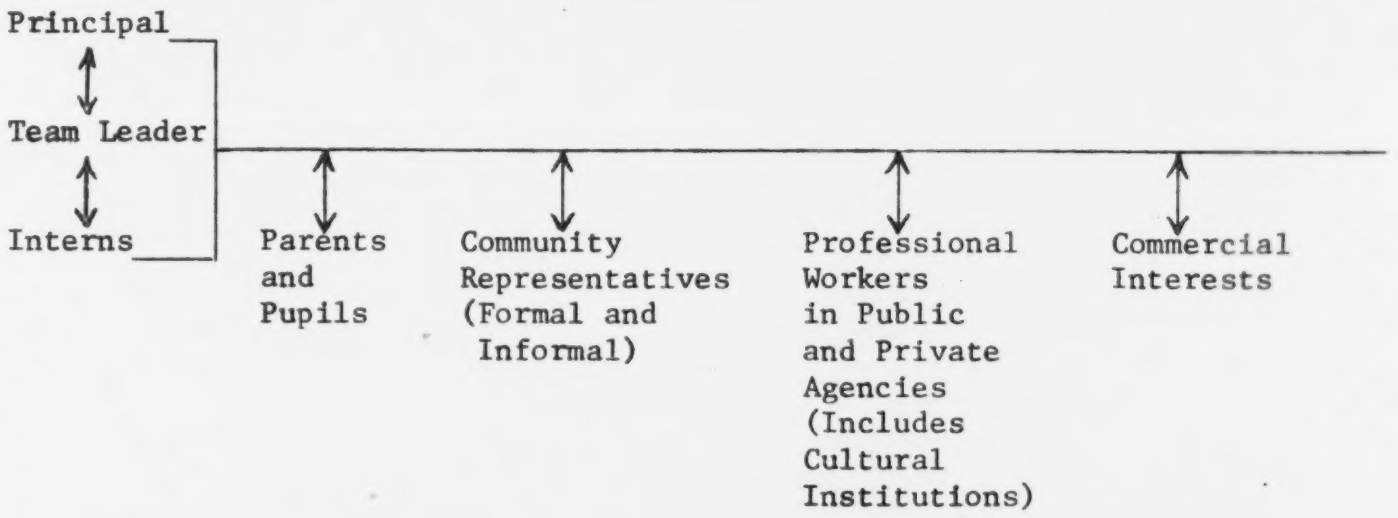


As one can see from the tortuous pattern of arrows, it is difficult to incorporate the multiple relationships possible within the teacher education system. This leads to difficulties in communication as we shall see later. The director and coordinator are by design equal in status and either can relate directly to team leaders. The director can and does relate directly to anyone in the system. The coordinator generally does not relate directly to professors and rarely to interns. We may have strained our systems approach to the utmost, but despite the different allegiances of the members of the teacher education system, we believe it is that--a system--or at least it must operate as a teacher education system to do the job.

An objective for the team leader in this context is: The team leader will demonstrate (teaching skills) for interns. Within the parentheses we would insert some specific skill.

Community-School System

The other system which must be operative in Teacher Corps programs we shall call the community-school system. Note at once that we are not referring to the particular concept of Community School popularized by the Mott Foundation in Flint, Michigan. This community-school system is another special case which does some violence to the systems approach but, nevertheless, serves rather well as a guide to the necessary actions of team leaders vis-a-vis the community. It includes the principal, the team leader, interns, (sometimes others on the teaching team), community representatives both official and unofficial, parents of pupils, professional workers in a variety of public and private social and government agencies in the neighborhood, and commercial interests located in the school area. The following diagram is our representation of this system.



An objective for this system is: The team leader will know and be known by workers in all public agencies serving the school community.

Other Systems

There are other hierarchical systems which include the systems described here. For example, we have said nothing about the one grouping which is by general usage usually referred to as a system: the school system. However, imperfectly articulated the elements may be, it would be helpful to conceive of all the schools and related services of a locality as a system. There are other governmental systems which include the schools. Following one of these would take us to the state government level.

We have not by any means considered all of the special purpose systems which cut across other boundaries as do the community-school and teacher education systems. Many of these could be considered extensions of the community in the broadest sense, but the boundaries of this extended system would be impossible to ascertain. It is not the difficulty of describing

additional systems which prevents us from delineating them here but rather the need to maintain a focus on the team leader. In the system we discuss, the team leader must play a major role. Although it is our announced interest to be as comprehensive as possible in our treatment, we must also acknowledge a principle of parsimony to avoid attempting too much. As we shall point out, the tasks already implied for the team leader are most formidable. To add peripheral additional tasks deduced from extended systems would be to make the position a practical impossibility. Moreover, we believe that the systems already identified include all those of primary importance for education in any typical location.

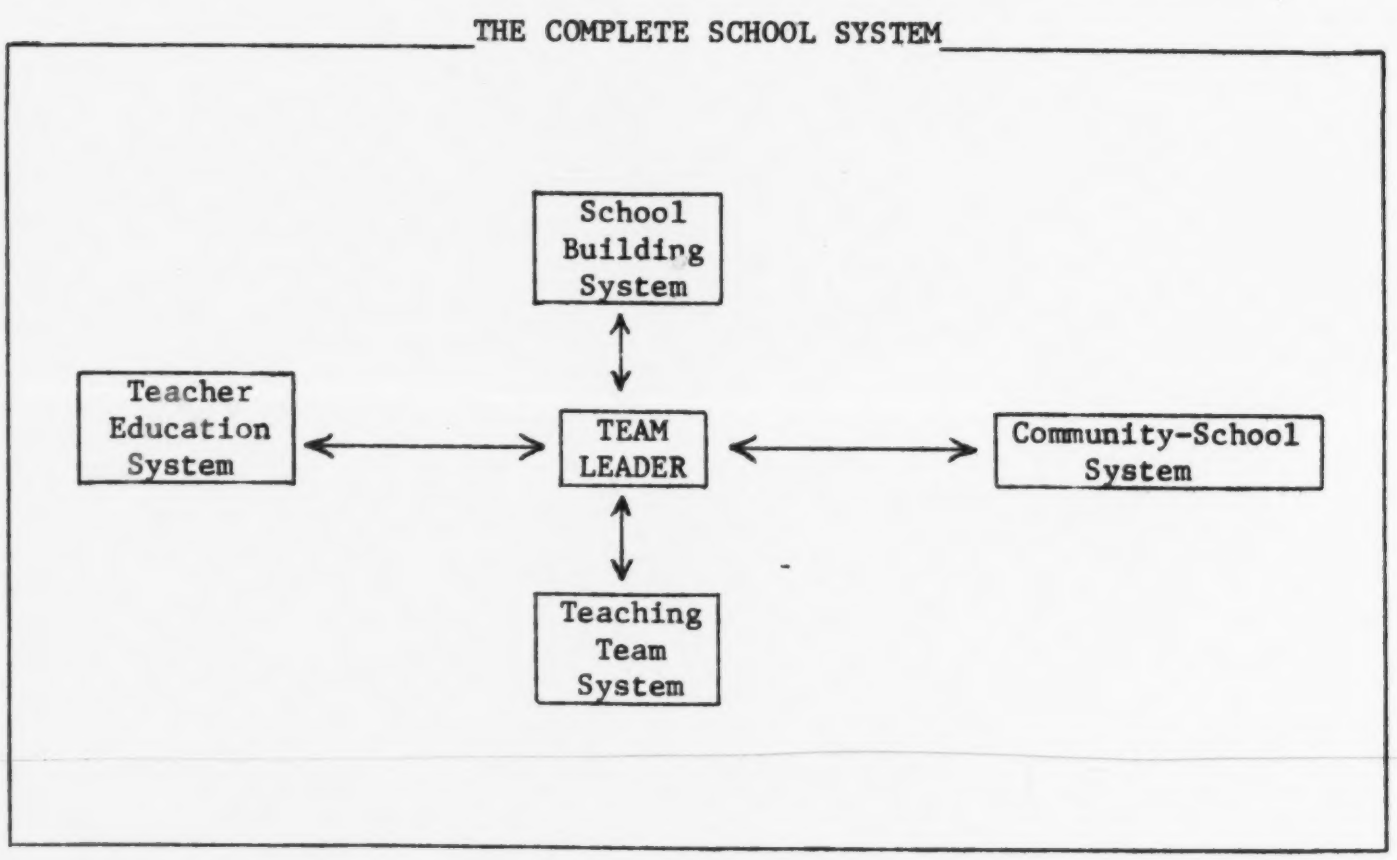
A New Role for Team Leaders: Systems Integrator

This development of the several systems in which the team leader plays an important role will serve quite well to generate additional objectives for the team leader in regard to each of the other groups involved in the systems. However, the real, and as yet unrealized, potential of the team leader role is in the capacity inherent in this new role to integrate these several systems into a new, coherent, more inclusive educational system. For want of a precise term, we shall call this new system "the complete school system." Although we have not coined a phrase which will last beyond this position paper, the term has logical validity. It implies that all of those elements must be present in order to deal with the complete school system. In the absence of any element, the system is incomplete.

An additional benefit of considering the complete school system is that proceeding in this fashion mandates consideration and, when appropriate, treatment of all elements of the system, thereby adding immeasurably to our chances of success. No longer can we tinker with the introduction of an innovation (say French in pre-school) without considering in advance its effect upon other elements of the system. Similarly, we would not assign a team of interns to a school without community participation.

The merging of these related elements makes such good sense that one wonders why the union has been so long delayed. Barriers of institutional boundaries have been surmounted before, but the merger of these systems has needed a point of linkage. We suggest that this point of linkage can be the team leader. The attempt on the following page to combine the schematic representations of the systems reveals the strategic position occupied by the team leader.

SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION
OF THE TEAM LEADER ROLE AS A
SYSTEM (OR SUB-SYSTEM) INTEGRATOR
WITHIN THE COMPLETE SCHOOL SYSTEM



Let us isolate some of the important linkage functions which the team leader performs because of his key position in the several sub-systems of the complete school system. We have already called attention to the manner in which team leaders coordinate activities of teaching teams between teams and within the overall building program. At that time we provided an objective dealing with the team leader-principal relationship. An objective dealing with the between-team coordination is: The team leader will be aware of the objectives and activities of other teaching teams in his school building system.

Linkage with the Teacher Education System

If, for a moment, we concentrate solely on teacher education activities associated solely with the Teacher Corps program, we find that the team leader is a liaison person between teachers and interns on his team and the coordinator and director as well as certain individual professors. This relationship is most important to the morale and, indeed, to the status of the team leader. It is the team leader who should first be consulted about some proposed field trip for interns which will require their absence from the teaching team. Directors who see the nuances of this notion will not instruct interns to: "Tell your schools you will be off next Thursday for a seminar with the Washington Teacher Corps program specialist." (Note: The extended Teacher Corps network is another type of system which some might wish to include in this discussion. We have omitted it for reasons of parsimony and primacy.)

If we push this same example a bit further, we learn more about the sensitive relationship of the team leader to others. It is often assumed that a line of communication, director--coordinator--team leader--intern has informed all concerned with an action. If we accept this assumption, it becomes a task of the team leader to inform the building principal of the proposed change in schedule next Thursday. Unless the team leader is the initiator or sponsor of the change, and it is purely a local matter, this violates the team leader-principal relationship. In this case it might be more politic for the coordinator to inform both the team leader and the principal. We need not belabor this point, but it should always be evident in the teacher education system that the principal is the responsible person for all activities at the building level.

It is obviously not practical to communicate simultaneously with everyone concerned in a particular action. However, in addition to acknowledging the hierarchy of persons concerned, it is extremely important that the same message be communicated to all groups. In one Teacher Corps program there was an implied lack of candor when the director and coordinator communicated essentially identical information to team leaders and interns. Perhaps much of this is because both groups made their own interpretation, but it is more than likely that subtle differences were built into the communication in order to make it more acceptable to each audience. The result of this was that each party--team leaders and interns--repeatedly requested that they be present personally whenever a communication concerning them was presented. Moreover, they even became unwilling to allow anyone to represent them (such as an elected delegate) to give or receive communication. If the team leader is to reflect the ideas and opinions of others in the teacher education system, he must do so with tact and accuracy.

An objective which represents the linkage role of the team leader in the teacher education system is: The team leader will participate in the university teacher education program by (a) planning with university personnel, (b) teaching demonstration lessons, (c) attending seminars and/or classes with interns.

If the team leader is to accept additional responsibilities for teacher education, his relationship will extend beyond those specifically required by his Teacher Corps affiliation. He will then take on some aspects of the "clinical professor" notion introduced by Conant. The team leader, however, has different and more tasks to perform than the idealized version of clinical professor.

In his teacher educator role, the team leader (always with the cooperation of the building principal) will enable the school to serve as a laboratory and demonstration center for pre-teaching observation, tutorials, methods courses, foundations courses, student teaching, and special areas, such as guidance, child development, and supervision. In this role the team leader can serve as a demonstration teacher or can be the person to arrange with other cooperating teachers, interns, or student teachers to present lessons or experiences appropriate for the several varied purposes of a teacher education program.

For example, the team leader could teach a lesson to pupils in his team with an entire university methods class present in the classroom. He could then turn the class of pupils over to another teacher or an intern and meet with the methods class in another location to critique the lesson. Or if the demonstration lesson was to be taught by a university professor, the team leader could arrange the scheduling of time and persons necessary to accommodate the university visitors. He could also, with or without the professor, arrange for each member of the methods class to prepare and present lessons in proper sequence and lead in the critique of the lessons.

The same services performed for the university-based teacher education program could be performed for public school in-service and orientation programs. In this expanded role, it is possible that the team leader should have adjunct faculty status and privileges. Perhaps new ways for the university and public schools to share in paying the team leader's salary will expedite the assumption of an expanded teacher education role by team leaders.

It is our position that the team leader contributes more to all subsystems when he assumes this role rather than less. Clearly, Teacher Corps interns can have a richer experience by participating in leadership and demonstration roles under the guidance of the team leader. The public schools receive more and better quality service from the teaching team and the university exchanges the lecture-textbook curriculum for reality.

An objective which represents the broader teacher education role is: The team leader will design and provide appropriate activities to enable others to master the skills involved in teaching (something to someone).

An entire position paper by my colleague, Russell Doll, deals with the role of the team leader in the community-school system. For this reason, we need not attempt a comprehensive review of the variety of involvements

necessary for success in this area. It is our position in this paper that the community-school system is of special importance to team leaders for two reasons:

1. New pressures for community involvement in schools will become irresistible.

2. Reliable information about the community-school relationship is almost non-existent.

It is a given that contacts with the community will multiply in Teacher Corps programs. With or without the guidance of team leaders, interns will become involved in community relationships. Unless the Teacher Corps guidelines are redrawn, Corps members must relate to the community in new ways. It now seems that the community component of Teacher Corps was, indeed, a perceptive assessment of trends in public education.

We assume, then, that, at the very least, interns will be in contact with the several elements of the community system. They will be exhorted by professors to do their thing in the community. (Although we are not now discussing the teacher education system, note that we have here another reason for the team leader involvement in <u>that</u> system.) At this point, it is highly desirable that the team leader should organize interns' efforts in order that they may be both effective and appropriate to the existing conditions.

In order to give this kind of leadership, the team leader will need to be actively involved in the school community. In one school system with a nation-wide reputation for school-community involvement, interns met with a surprising lack of enthusiasm for extending their work into the school community. Most of the teachers told them bluntly that it was not safe and only an idiot would venture into the community day or night. Of course, the interns did seek out the community and with some success. They would almost certainly have been more successful if they were only a part of the school extension into the community rather than being almost the sole representative. Apparently the reputation for community involvement was won at another level and was something like the halo effect of one individual's success. Parents came into the schools as aides or to meet on a district-wide committee. The schools were not going into the community. Teacher Corps team leaders must help interns go to the community with some probability of success.

Team leaders will know the directors of youth serving agencies as well as the leaders of youth gangs. These and other organizations all have much to do with the success of the school in the community. In another city there was a break-in of the school, and a new piece of science education equipment was stolen. The team leader told certain of his community contacts that the equipment was worthless for resale and that no questions would be asked if it was left in a vacant house across the street from the school. The science education equipment was recovered.

An objective typical of this linkage role is: The team leader will know of resources in the community and will utilize these resources whenever appropriate.

Implications

Our argument for a systems approach to obtaining objectives for a training program for team leaders has enabled us to formulate representative objectives. It is our hope that the process of doing this suggests how other important objectives may be derived from the associations and functions of team leaders within and between the systems identified. There are objectives to deal with the relationship of the team leader to every other person or group in every system. These objectives can be teased out by going into the data of the real world of the team leader in any of a variety of ways. This position paper has been only one approach. It is not exclusive of others. Objectives prepared by any method will be evaluated and organized when the entire process is completed.

Conclusion

We have seen that the systems approach to designing a training program is heuristic. It leads one to the many different tasks of team leaders. We think it is also comprehensive. If we have left out systems which are important under some conditions (e.g., the System Coordinating Committee for Multi-Unit Schools or the Team Leader-Intern Council for some Teacher Corps Units), these can easily be built in and suitable objectives formulated.

A special advantage of our approach is that it requires emphasis on the unique aspects of each situation at the same time as it presents common tasks of the team leader. Finally, it seems to us that the requirements of the position we have attempted to define are such as to encourage careful attention to the training and support of the team leader. And that was our objective.

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COMPETENCIES FOR TEAM LEADERS IN FACILITATING CHANGE

ABSTRACT

In this paper we assume that the Teacher Corps team leader has a responsibility to facilitate change in education. Three kinds of problem-solving processes are described, and prerequisites for using change processes are identified. Finally, we suggest the roles and strategies needed for team leaders and certain others to bring about constructive change. Implications for training programs and materials are introduced throughout the development of the nature of change today.

by

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COMPETENCIES FOR TEAM LEADERS IN FACILITATING CHANGE

By Charles C. Jung

Change Dilemmas Facing a Team Leader

A Teacher Corps team leader may experience many dilemmas concerning change. Should the objectives or strategy of a lesson plan be changed in the light of new data about the readiness and attitudes of the learners? Should an intern be made aware of a sequence of pupil-teacher interactional behaviors to increase the alternatives of his teaching style at this time? Does the apparent conflict among team members indicate need for a change in who is to undertake which tasks? Or is the need simply for a change of expectations about who is responsible for what? Is it necessary for individuals to change so that all team members share a common philosophy of education? Or are there changes in ways of working together which are enhanced by differences in philosophies? Can good, traditional classroom teachers change their orientation and styles to enjoy contributing as members of a team? Can school districts change to accommodate new patterns of teaching and new experiences of learning? Can adults change to new ways of helping youth grow and become willing to learn from a new kind of youth?

This paper takes the position that the Teacher Corps team leader has a major responsibility to facilitate desired changes in education. We will propose some ideas about the nature of change in the world today. These ideas imply kinds of changes that our schools must face. We then will suggest some specific ways to deal with change. This especially focuses on three kinds of problem-solving processes. This is followed by training and consulting processes to support individual and organizational self renewal. Some prerequisites are proposed for using change processes constructively. A combination of roles and strategies is suggested for constructive change in schools. It is within this context that training team leaders for facilitating change must be considered.

The Nature of Change in Today's World

Our world is changing in fundamental ways. Cultural/technological evolution has given man an ultimate creative and/or destructive capacity. Past changes have resulted in man having, or being able to do, new things. The current change in ultimate capacity is more profound. It is philosophical. Man's capacity for perspective on what it means to be alive has been fundamentally altered. We have scarcely begun attempting to cope with the implications of this change.

One immediate implication is that youth growing up in today's world view it and themselves in a significantly different manner than most of the adults whom they encounter. Toffler documents such differences dramatically in his book, Future Shock[1]. Educators need to educate youth for a future world they can only imagine. They also must educate youth who are in certain ways basically different from anything they, the adults, have been or will ever be. We are in a century of generational difference which represents an unprecedented transition in the history of mankind.

Past periods of major social changes were typically induced by cultural and/or technological evolution. Such advances as the compass, gunpowder, Aristotelian logic, Christian concepts of relationships, the principles of mass production, the theory of relativity, or digital computers have had more or less revolutionary impact on societies. In Lewinian terms, a society unfreezes, reorients, and reorganizes to accommodate the advance, and refreezes into a new operational pattern. Kinds of roles that exist in the society, the ways they relate to operate organizations, and the community patterns and practices of the society as a whole tend to remain stable for decades or centuries at a time. They are changed only during these dynamic periods of temporary unfreezing. Then the new roles, patterns, and practices are statically maintained again for decades or centuries.

In past societies most people have experienced life as static. Dynamic changes were the exception rather than the rule. With ultimate creative/destructive capacity in the hands of man, dynamic change will be continuous. In this period of change, societies cannot simply look for a new static pattern to settle into. This time we must change from a static to a dynamic way of experiencing being alive.

A dynamic way of experiencing life means having personally useable understandings of human processes. Instead of learning how to fill a role, you learn what roles are, how to create them, and how to move in and out of them. Instead of learning a set pattern of ways of relating to others, you learn the alternative processes of interpersonal relationships. You can then move in and out of relationships rapidly without losing the human meanings of relating. Instead of learning how to work in an organization that never changes, you learn how organizations work so that you can contribute to their continuous change to meet new needs and utilize changing resources. Instead of holding to the unfounded assumption that there is one best way to live, you value the divergence of alternatives that provides your testing ground for creating your own desired life style. Instead of learning only the competencies for maintaining a status quo, you master the processes for dealing with different kinds of problem solving and facilitating growth for yourself and others. Some such processes and their underlying competencies will be presented explicitly later in this paper.

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[1]A. Toffler. Future Shock. Random House, New York, 1970.

Changes That Schools Must Face

A formal educational system traditionally exists for the purpose of maintaining its society. What is to be maintained, ultimately, is the society's capacity for survival and growth. In past--static--orientations this has meant maintaining the status quo. Given the nature of current change, it means maintaining ever increasing capacities for change. If the purpose of formal education is to continue under these radically altered conditions, our schools must accomplish major changes. It can be argued that this purpose--maintaining the society--of the formal educational system should not be continued. We maintain that it should, for at least the next few decades. Assuming the need for a formal system of education, let us look at some major kinds of changes that our schools must face.

One major change needed is the application of technology to improve instruction. In the past we have relied on teachers to do this. Technology can do it more efficiently. Technology will be able to relate instruction effectively to a base of knowledge which is changing and growing at geometric rates of progression. Technology can be made to improve learning, make instruction in fast changing areas of knowledge valid, and free educators for other, more vital, functions of facilitating learners. Team leaders will be in a key role of implementing changes of increased use of technology for instruction. Emancipation from instruction must be achieved so that educators may deal with the human issues of growth.

Beyond the change of implementing new instructional technologies, team leaders will need to be involved with their teams in exploring and giving feedback to researchers and developers about the needs and possibilities of technologically supported instruction. Many of the early attempts at programmed learning and computer assisted instruction have seemed to suffer from theoretical bias or a lack of comprehensive analysis in their design. In short, they led to learning experiences that were rigid, lockstep, trivial, or boring.

Materials that provide for "individualizing" in terms of readiness and rates can still lack the flexibility demands of personal relevance. Relevance is defined as influence on social psychological self. Teachers need materials with which they can create learning experiences tailored for their learners. Such experiences will involve the learner in seeing how the things he is learning apply to himself here and now. Teachers will need much help in changing from textbook, course outline procedures to being constructors and managers of learning experiences using a "Leggo"-like--a kind of toy building block from which children create all kinds of constructions--set of curricular resources.

Another major change is the introduction of "process" learning as a whole new area of curriculum. Operationally defined competencies are being identified for a growing number of intrapersonal, interpersonal, group, and organizational processes. Such processes as identifying needs, analyzing constraints, communicating feelings, planning and conducting improvement efforts, kinds of decision making, negotiating, or evaluating one's own growth must become a high priority curriculum in schools for tomorrow. As these other kinds of

changes occur, educators will have to face a more personal kind of change in their school experience. Increased relevance and personalized learning needed in a dynamic world will draw adults, along with students, into the explorations of values and deeper sharings of self. The instructor role of teachers in the past did not call for either. The growth facilitating role that many youth are already seeking in their teachers demands both. Most of us have much to learn about effective, appropriate ways to share who we are, why we are that way, what we live, and what we feel.

Adults must not only learn to help students gain useable understandings of processes, including the ability to explore values and occasionally share of oneself, but must also learn to accept and live with major differences of perspectives of their students. The total life experience of today's youth has been more dynamic than that of their elders. All of the usual generational differences exist with this changed perspective added. This youth generation may be stronger for having a more valid perspective of reality. They may also suffer from a lack of adults who understand today's changes well enough to be able to provide guidance. Thus, we see an inordinate amount of polarized conflict in society at this time. Youth need adults to change toward more dynamic orientations so as to be able to help them meaningfully. Adults also must become more able to accept the extent to which they cannot understand the new, dynamic perspectives of youth. They will need to change at least enough to be able to work constructively together despite their differences in perspective. While they may never completely forget what it was like to be fifteen, they must recognize that they can never fully comprehend what it is like to be fifteen today!

It may seem obvious, but is worth emphasizing, that adults must become continuous learners themselves in this world of change. This is likely to be a difficult challenge. Most adults learned to be anxious about learning and uncomfortable in the role of learner. Teachers who maintain the traditional instructor orientation may be among the most reluctant members of our society to move into a dynamic, process-oriented future. Teachers who change to the functions of helping students learn how to learn will, themselves, need to have learned how to be learners. How feasible this change will be for adults who are products of the static orientations of their pasts may be the most critical issue man faces in moving through the present historical period of transition.

Another change is that schools need to become dynamic organizations. Faculties need orientations and competencies to think and act functionally in relation to objectives. Schools tend now to operate statically in terms of roles and traditions. New skills in organizational functioning are clearly needed if educators are to realize the potential of improvements, such as team teaching or modular scheduling. Most structural changes in organizational functioning are only disruptive if not accompanied by new operating skills and group norms.

Finally, schools must face the change of serving increasing numbers of individuals who have a personal orientation of self renewal. In a world that is becoming dynamic, increasing numbers of individuals will evolve to social psychological selves in which they accept responsibility and control over who

and what they are. Such an orientation, based on a core value for growth, implies unprecedented demands on a formal educational system. Instead of offering a relatively few courses deemed prerequisite for participation in society, the educational system must move toward a function of broker of knowledge and learning experiences for an endlessly pluralistic clientele of learners. There will be learners of all ages for a spreading array of interests moving toward limitless alternatives of life style. Our teachers will need help in changing from an orientation of "how to get students to learn" to one of how to meet the insatiable demands of active learners.

Ways To Deal with Change

There are many ways to deal with change. It is sometimes possible to avoid it or ignore it. Some changes occur as a matter of pure chance. Some are predictable or unpredictable acts of nature. People often deal with change in a spontaneous way. If they are open to insights within themselves and in their surroundings, spontaneous action can have excellent results. It also can be arbitrary, ill conceived, and disastrous.

There are also rational, planful ways of dealing with change. These planful ways represent a curriculum for the training of educators in improving their schools.

Our perspective on changing social systems has been altered in the past few decades. In the past major concern was for how to bring about system changes when they were thought desirable. As we moved through the twentieth century, the perspective shifted to one expressed as recently as a decade ago by Bennis, Benne, and Chin[2]. The thinking of these scholarly investigators of the phenomena was already becoming more dynamic. They were seeing many kinds of changes, and the fact of change itself, as inevitable. The perspective shifted to one of concern for how the directions of change might be influenced. A fully dynamic orientation goes even further. The perspective becomes one of how to live continuous change. It is important to note that, depending on the perspective an individual holds in these regards, his understanding and application of the processes described below will vary a great deal.

There are three kinds of processes for dealing in rational, planful ways with change. They can be considered as three kinds of problem-solving processes. A problem situation is defined as one in which there is a difference between the way things are and the way someone desires them to be. If we ask the question, "When is a change an improvement?", we can see that three different kinds of criteria can be applied in responding. The three kinds of problem-solving processes derive from concern for each of these three kinds of criteria for determining when a change is an improvement.

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[2] W. Bennis, K. Benne, and R. Chin. The Planning of Change. Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, New York, 1961.

Technical Criteria

The first kind of criteria is technical. When an operationally definable objective is desired, a process of technical analysis and synthesis can be applied to achieving it if possible within the given requirements and constraints. Technical assessment determines when the objective is reached. This assessment similarly determines those situations in which achievement of the objective is unfeasible under existing conditions.

Theoretical Criteria

The second kind of criteria is theoretical. It applies when primary concern is not for achieving an operationally definable objective, but rather for determining how and why things are happening as they are. Technical criteria apply when you know the answer you want. Theoretical criteria apply when you know you have a question that needs to be better understood. Explorations of how and why things are happening call for a process of scientific inquiry. One states a working theory, identifies hypotheses, and tests these out with some variation of the scientific method. While a version of system technology can help to manage the inquiry process, they are not the same and not interchangeable. Educators need a version of system technology for dealing with technical changes. They need a version of action research for dealing with theoretical ones.

Philosophical Criteria

The third kind of criteria is philosophical. A technical process can tell you whether an objective was achieved. A theoretical inquiry can tell you how and why it does, or does not, have the causal effects you thought it would. Only a philosophical exploration can clarify whether and why you like a given set of outcomes.

The human reality of pluralistic needs and desires seems poorly understood as yet by mankind. The holdover of social norms from a static perspective strives to maintain feelings of security in the myth that there is one "good" life style. The problem, of course, is that definition of the good life varies across cultures. The needed philosophical understanding is not only that fundamental--values based--differences of self interest are inevitable, but that they are also desirable as the basis of human growth and the evolution of cultures. When such issues of difference need to be dealt with, neither a technical nor a scientific process are applicable. The process needed is one of values exploration and negotiation. Below is an example of how the three kinds of criteria apply.

Application of All Criteria

Let's say we have an objective of teaching Aleut Indians in remote villages of Alaska to read English. We can state this objective operationally and assess the outcomes. We use system technology to plan and manage our efforts to attain the objective. When we attain it, we have achieved technical success. If we fail, it is because the mission was not technically feasible.

We may have sought this objective because our working theory of how things happen said that Aleut Indians from Alaska villages who learn English can go to cities, get jobs, and live more like the average American middle-class life style. Having achieved technical success, we can apply an action research process to check out whether our working theory was correct. We might find that it was, in which case we have been successful theoretically as well as technically. Or we might find our English-reading Aleuts unable to hold jobs in the city and only winding up more frustrated with their experience as Indians in America. Technical success was accompanied by theoretical failure!

But let's suppose the Aleuts did get their city jobs and began to live the life style of the average middle-class American. Is such a life style better than that of an Aleut Indian in an Alaskan village? This is a philosophical question that can't be answered by either system technology or action research. This calls for values exploration, and if there are fundamental differences of self-interest between parties involved, the process needed is one of negotiations.

The kind of change desired--technical, theoretical, or philosophical--is a major determinant of the specific process which should be applied. A major barrier to progress in improving education is the failure to select, or inability to apply, the most appropriate process relative to the kind of change desired. Illustrations of an appropriate process for each kind of change situation follow.

Technical Change Process

The process known as system technology applies in the technical situation where the major objective, or "mission" can be clearly defined at the outset. The process is a logical, analytical one for planning and managing achievement of the objective, if feasible, in the most effective way. It is a closed loop problem-solving model which recycles effort in accordance with changes in resources and/or requirements, but always relative to the mission. All effort converges on accomplishment of the mission. In fact, a sophisticated version of this process has recently been labeled the "convergence" technique.

The Corrigans have pioneered applications of system technology for education in developing training materials for educational administrators and curriculum developers. They are collaborating with the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory in developing materials to train teachers in a version for managing classroom learning experiences. They refer to their work as "A System Approach for Education" (SAFE)[3]. Figure 1 presents their model of this process. The following areas of competencies are needed for applying this process:

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[3]R. Corrigan. A System Approach for Education. R. E. Corrigan Associates, Anaheim, California, 1969.

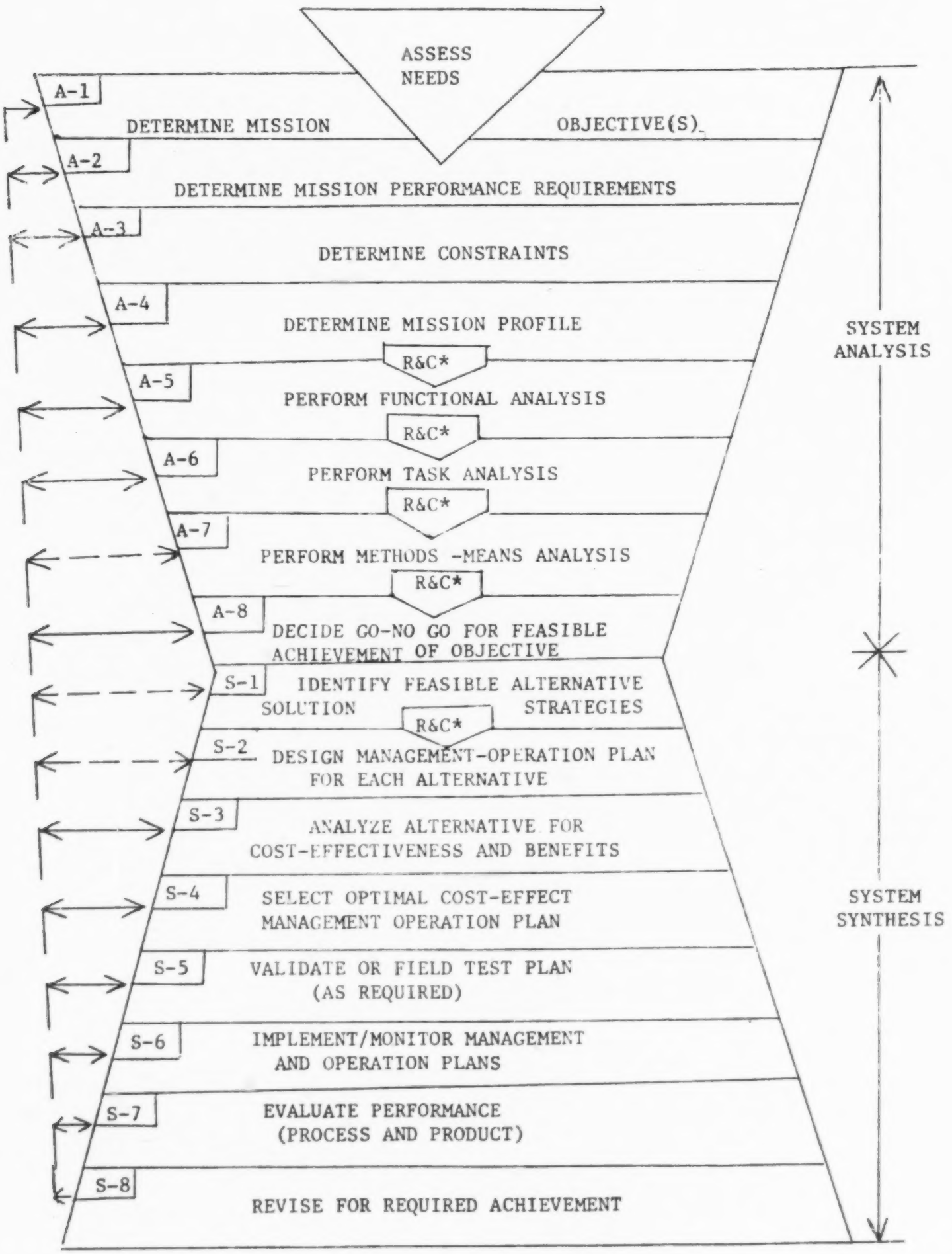

Figure 1: A Model of a System Approach for Education (SAFE)
(Reproduced with permission of R. E. Corrigan Associates)

... defining a system and the system approach
... conducting a needs assessment
... stating a mission objective
... specifying performance requirements
... specifying mission constraints
... diagraming a mission profile
... conducting a function analysis
... conducting a task analysis
... conducting a methods/means analysis
... analyzing solution alternatives
... selecting a solution strategy
... implementing a solution strategy
... evaluating solution strategy implementation
... revising when necessary.

Theoretical Change Process

The "Research Utilizing Problem Solving" (RUPS) process applies to the theoretical situation in which there is a requirement for continuous needs sensing, objective diagnosis, resource retrieval, planning, action taking, and evaluating. Much local decision making in education appears to be of a personal referent nature. Objective problem solving processes, when used, tend to derive from the scientific method. RUPS is an example of an objective process.[4] It can be applied to solving a discrete problem but is more appropriately understood as a continuous divergent process for improving and meeting changing needs.

RUPS was conceived in the Cooperative Project for Educational Development (COPED), a seven-university consortium to study models of planned change in school systems.[5] It has been developed as a system of training materials in forms for both teachers and administrators by the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.[6] Figure 2 presents a model of the RUPS process. The following areas of competencies are needed for applying this process.

... applying four guideline criteria in writing a problem statement
... paraphrasing in interpersonal communications
... using the force field diagnostic technique
... selecting and creating instruments for data gathering
... diagnosing teamwork relationships
... spotting and analyzing major results in data collected

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[4] C. Jung. "Problem Solving Approach to Educational Change," New York City Education. Winter, 1969.

[5] C. Jung. "Classroom Problem Solving Materials." Mimeographed, Ann Arbor, Michigan: COPED, University of Michigan, 1967.

[6] C. Jung, R. Pino, and R. Emory. Research Utilizing Problem Solving. Multi-media instructional system for training educators, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Portland, Oregon, 1971.

SCIENTIFIC KNOWLEDGE - - may draw on - - THE PROCESS - - may draw on - - KNOWLEDGE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SETTING

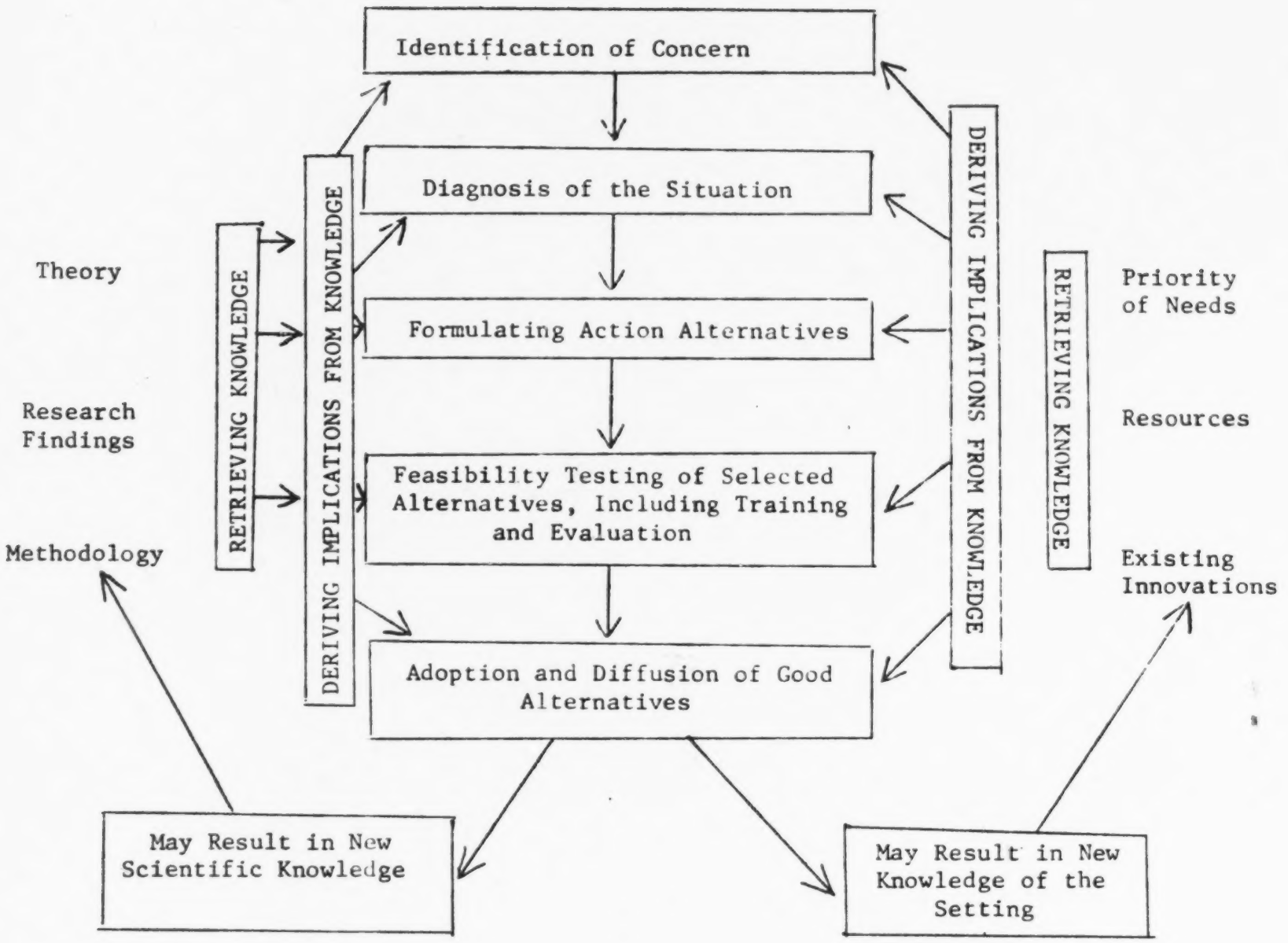

Figure 2: Research Utilizing Problem Solving Process Model (RUPS)

...identifying one's personal style of operationalizing dimensions of teamwork behaviors
...utilizing concepts and skills of giving and receiving feedback
...using criteria for deriving implications from research findings
...brainstorming action alternatives to meet implications derived from findings
...applying guidelines for planning and implementing action alternatives
...identifying and evaluating small group dynamics
...planning action project
...evaluating solution plans.

A model for understanding conflict situations and training in a process of negotiations is being created at the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. A conflict situation is defined as follows:

1. A conflict situation is based on different self-interests and will result in action that satisfies some parties but not others.

2. It is all right to do battle rather than be collaborative when the issue is a real conflict situation.

3. There need to be clear ground rules for the struggle among all concerned parties.

4. Negotiation involves presenting desires and using power. Power is never given up or shared because, by definition of the situation, parties do not have each other's best interests at heart on the issue in question.

5. Parties in conflict on some issues can, at the same time, be in collaboration on other issues.

Competencies in the following areas would be needed for a process of negotiations in education:

1. The ongoing nature of conflict in the dynamics of human systems must be understood.

2. Criteria and techniques for determining when and how to surface conflict issues must be explicit.

3. If confronted in a challenging way, one must be open to exploring whether a real conflict situation exists, and, if so, dealing with it as such. Don't demand that people always approach you in a collaborative way.

4. Be clear about what the issue is.

5. Be clear that it calls for action that will not meet the best interest of all parties--that there is no collaborative best solution.

6. Each party needs to be extremely clear about what its own best self-interests are on the issue.

7. Negotiation is a process of making a deal in which each party will meet as many of its own needs as its power can force. Strive for ground rules that maximize power. Challenge all assumptions and conclusions. Have them proven. Try to get your own assumptions and conclusions accepted.

8. Use demands and power to meet needs.

9. Negotiate to maintain power in the future.

10. Be ready to negotiate again in the future about this same issue. Conflict situations don't usually end. They call for different action being taken anytime the power between the concerned parties changes.

The educator who would be competent in ways to deal with change to improve education needs a fourth kind of process to deal with the three which have just been described. A needs assessment process must be continuously applicable which determines which kind of criteria for improvement are most relevant to any given change situation. Such a needs assessment process would clarify whether, in a given instance, a technical, a theoretical, or a philosophical problem-solving process should be employed. A needs assessment model for this purpose is the basis of a training system developed at the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. Work is currently underway at the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory to analyze and define competencies needed to employ this model. For information about this model, see A SYSTEM OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND EVALUATION, Integration of Planning with Definitions of Planning Roles and Training Methods, a conceptual memo of the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, January 7, 1971, revised February 5, 1971.

Self-Renewal Processes

There is one other category of processes necessary for dealing with changes in educational systems. These are termed processes for supporting self renewal of human systems. Education, as compared to fields such as industry or agriculture, is peculiarly concerned with human dynamics. The end-product intended is changes in people. The operational characteristics of human systems are fundamentally different from those of pure technological, physical, or chemical systems in that they are social psychological in nature.

Levels of human systems are conceived as ranging from the individual to the dyadic relationship, to small groups, organizations, communities, and societies. A similar set of functions can be identified as applicable to all these levels. Similar kinds of operational characteristics, although appearing in different form for different levels, also apply to every level. Educational systems need ability to apply self-renewal processes of:

...diagnosing local system needs
...using prepared professional growth training systems
...designing skills training for specific local needs
...assessing training outcomes
...consulting to involve school districts in locally prescribed programs for professional development
...relating the system to external resources
...involving school districts in planning and action to meet their continuous organizational development needs.

Training in such processes is being designed in a sequence of three instructional systems entitled Preparing Educational Training Consultants (PETC)[7]. It is based on programs of the National Training Laboratories: Institute for Applied Behavioral Science. The three systems are being developed by the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.

Skills Training

PETC I: Skills Training provides competencies in--

...applying criteria to identification of organizational issues
...applying criteria in writing a problem statement
...paraphrasing in interpersonal communications
...diagnosing skill practice needs of individuals
...identifying group priorities for skill practice exercises
...applying criteria for selecting skill practice exercises
...applying criteria for sequencing skill practice exercises
...using guidelines for conducting skill practice exercises
...applying guidelines for conducting skill practice exercises
...evaluating acquisition of skills

Consultation

PETC II: Consultation provides competencies in--

...applying planned change phases in work with a client system
...applying a three-dimensional diagnostic matrix for identification of client needs. The matrix includes categories on dimensions of the level of the human system, operational characteristics, and functions.
...applying a three-dimensional intervention matrix to working with the client system to meet a need. The matrix includes categories on dimensions of the role of the consultant, the problem-solving stage, and the type of intervention.
...identifying own competencies as related to cells of the two matrices
...identifying own professional growth needs and goals
...identifying own value and ideological base for assuming the consultant role.

Organizational Development

PETC III: Organizational Development provides competencies in--

...diagnosing systemic needs of the organization
...diagnosing the organization's potential for increasing its functional capacities
...analyzing system change objectives, requirements, and constraints
...planning systematic change
...engineering normative change
...engineering structural change
...engineering maintenance for new process and structure
...assessing changed functional capacities of the organization.

[7] "Preparing Education Training Consultants: To Provide Support for Continuous Learning of School Personnel and Improvement of Educational Systems." Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Portland, Oregon, 1970.

In review, there are many ways to deal with change. There are three kinds of problem-solving processes for dealing planfully with desired changes. They derive from three kinds of criteria for considering when a change is improvement. The first kind of criteria is technical. The Corrigan's "System Approach for Education," a version of system technology, illustrates a technical problem-solving process. The second is theoretical. The "Research Utilizing Problem Solving" process of the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory illustrates a theoretical action research problem-solving process. The third is philosophical. A good process for understanding conflict situations and using negotiations is greatly needed in education. A needs assessment process is also needed to clarify, in each specific situation, which kind of problem-solving process deserves primary attention.

A total curriculum for dealing with change in education goes beyond the three kinds of problem-solving processes and the needs assessment process for determining when to apply which. It includes processes for supporting continuous self-renewal of human systems at all levels. Such processes provide skills training, consultation, and organizational development.

Prerequisites for Using Change Processes

Competencies in using the change processes do not guarantee success. Naturally there are sometimes requirements and conditions which cannot be satisfactorily dealt with. Of special concern to those who wish to become proficient in using processes to influence change is consideration of other processes and growth factors which should be considered prerequisite to their use.

Growth factors include intellectual maturity and emotional stability. Helping others to deal with human dynamics of system self-renewal can be extremely stressful. Because one's own social psychological self can alter while engaged in such work, it can be critical for the person taking the role of change agent to know who he is and why he is what he is.

The change agent needs the maturity and confidence to be confronted with his own self under the most demanding kinds of conditions. If his values and ideology are not democratic and humanitarian, he represents an autocratic threat to the system he purports to help. If he is not clear about these values and ideology, and able to be flexible about the representations of his self which maintains them, he becomes a threat to the stability of his client and himself

In today's world of change it becomes increasingly important that those who use problem-solving processes have achieved some degree of dynamic orientation in understanding the world. Using these processes from past perspectives can yield polarized conflicts that may have destructive consequences. It appears that there may be a kind of social psychological self-maturity concerning this idea of a dynamic orientation which should be considered a prerequisite to taking a change agent role in education. It becomes intolerable if these powerful processes are used to maintain old, static conditions when improvements are needed. Can persons who have maintained a static orientation to life apply these processes to dynamic ends? This is one of the dilemmas of our era of transition.

Another prerequisite should be understanding the nature of being a learner. This represents a paradoxical demand. While it is desperately needed to plan and influence relevant improvements in education, it has been difficult to operationalize a model of learner self evolution in a world that is rapidly evolving. Such a model is being worked on.[8] It should eventually provide the rationale for alternative strategies of using change processes. An instructional system for utilizing such a model can be anticipated in about five years. Once available, it will immediately become prerequisite to some of the other training systems.

When change issues concern the functions teachers provide for learners, useable understandings of teacher behaviors and styles are clearly a prerequisite. Competencies are needed in such teacher-pupil interactive processes as Taba's Higher Level Thinking[9], Gallagher's Questioning Strategies[10], and Inquiry[11]. Processes for analyzing teaching style, such as Cogan's "clinical supervision"[12] and Flander's "interaction analysis"[13] should also be prerequisite.

Basic interpersonal competencies of communication[14] and influence[15] behaviors should also be prerequisite. Educational improvement efforts are likely to involve more than enough real conflicts and constraints. They

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[8] C. Jung. "The Active Learner: An Operational Model of the Evolution of Social-Psychological Self." Working paper of the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Portland, Oregon, 1971.

[9] J. McCollum. Development of Higher Level Thinking Abilities. Multimedia instructional system for training educators, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1971.

[10] S. Miller. Questioning Strategies Leading to Productive Thinking. Multi-media instructional system for training educators, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1971.

[11] F. Newton. Facilitating Inquiry in the Classroom. Multi-media instructional system for training educators, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1971.

[12] J. Hale and A. Spanjer. Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction. Multi-media instructional system for training educators, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1971.

[13] J. Hansen. and R. Anderson. Interaction Analysis. Multi-media instructional system for training educators, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1971.

[14] C. Jung, R. Emory, and R. Pino. Interpersonal Communications. Multimedia instructional system for training educators, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1971.

[15] C. Jung, R. Emory, R. Pino, and E. Challis. Interpersonal Influence. Multi-media instructional system for training educators, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1971.

shouldn't have to be overly concerned by poor teamwork behaviors. Such interpersonal competency prerequisites extend to group and organizational decision making.[16] They are fully elaborated in Chin's position paper on Group Process for Task Teams. Illustrations of explicit competencies of interpersonal communications and interpersonal influence are listed below.

Interpersonal Communications competencies include:

...paraphrasing to assure understanding of what others are saying
...describing behavior as a skill to enable others to identify and recognize the specific behavior to which an individual is responding
...describing, as distinguished from expressing, feelings
...checking one's perceptions of others' feelings or intent
...identifying nonverbal communication cues
...applying guidelines to giving and receiving feedback
...identifying the effects of expectations on communications
...applying the concepts of coding and encoding to interpersonal communications
...identifying the effects of feelings on communications
...applying the concept of matching of behavior with intentions in communicating
...identifying freeing and binding behaviors which affect openness of communication
...applying the circular process model of interpersonal relations to identifying behaviors of one's own style of communicating
...identifying the effects of roles on communications
...identifying the effects of norms on communications
...identifying the effects of directionality on communications
...identifying patterns of communication
...identifying the influence of one's personal style of communicating under pressure
...applying techniques of assessing one's knowledge and skills in interpersonal communication
...applying guidelines to creating self-improvement communication exercises
...developing interpersonal support for improving communication skills.

Interpersonal Influence competencies include:

...clarifying intention and effect of perceived influence behaviors
...identifying key influence factors in one's own self-image and ideal
...identifying one's own characteristic reactions to the influence of feelings
...developing openness in relationships through recognition and use of freeing versus binding behaviors
...applying guidelines to behaviors of being influenced in the helpee role
...applying guidelines to behaviors of being influenced in the helper role
...defining a dimension of control as a need in one's personal style

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16"Interpersonal Relations: To Provide Basic Teamwork Skills for Teachers." Component description of Program 100: Developing Instructional Systems to Improve Teacher Competencies, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Portland, Oregon, 1970.

...identifying and coping with manipulative behaviors of "sandbagging," "the leading question," "the stacked deck," ridicule, "the double bind," "marshalling the experts," "switching channels," "getting the drop," and using or arousing feelings to influence
...creating valid expectations versus the "self-fulfilling prophecy"
...identifying and dealing explicitly with nonverbal influence behaviors
...using praise to influence
...using criticism to influence
...using questions to influence clarity versus manipulating
...identifying one's characteristic influence patterns in the context of the Circular Process of Interpersonal Relations model
...identifying and "unfreezing" collusion patterns in relationships
..planning multiple entry strategies to improve a relationship
...identifying and improving one's own behaviors of dependence, independence, counterdependence, and interdependence
...clarify and using dual responsibility in relationships
...identifying and improving the interaction of intimacy and control in relationships
...sharing hidden agendas and multiple loyalties during group process
...identify and coping with pluralistic ignorance in groups
..develop desired norms in groups
...sharing leadership on the basis of expertise
..identifying leadership patterns of democracy, autocracy, and laissez-faire systems
..identifying formal and informal influence patterns
..using an "influence matrix" to specify the kind of influence assigned to different roles at different stages of problem solving in an organization making explicit the application of personal values and ideology in determining influence behaviors
..applying guidelines to creating self-improvement influence exercises
..developing interpersonal support for improving influence skills

Roles and Strategies for Change in Schools

Present knowledge about change efforts in education[17] indicates the error of believing we can train for one kind of role that will become the primary change agent in schools. An individual with the prerequisites and a high level of competencies in using problem solving processes would still have very limited potential for changing schools by himself.[18]

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[17] G. Watson, (ed.) Concepts for Social Change. National Training Laboratories, National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1967.

[18] R. Schmuck and P. Runkel. Organizational Training for a School Faculty. The Center for Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon, 1970.

For a large school district special change agent roles might be an important part of a strategy for self-renewal.[19] They probably are not an adequate strategy by themselves. It appears that schools will be best able to deal with their change needs if there is some general training for all roles, and some special training for a few roles. When feasible, there may also be one or more specialist roles in the system. Havelock's argument for linkage between roles needing to include useable understandings of each other's processes is especially potent in implying advisability of a combined strategy to deal effectively with change.[20]

In most settings, it will usually be most cost-effective for a school system to occasionally use outside consultant help in dealing with certain change issues. Some of the self-renewal competencies needed within the system include knowing when and how to engage such outside resources. Consultation training of the PETC II instructional system cited earlier is explicit in this regard.[21]

Training in the prerequisites of dealing planfully with change and in the use of change processes and the processes for facilitating continuous growth of educators is a critical priority in American education. Such training represents the major retooling which can make education dynamic and able to meet the demands of the new world which is currently emerging.

There are few clear guidelines for effective strategies to provide this retooling. Support for studies in this area has been negligible. Nevertheless, there is a scattering of guidelines that can be drawn upon for suggesting a strategy that could reasonably be expected to have a dramatic effect on most school districts. Training of Teacher Corps personnel could be central in this strategy. It includes training for team leaders plus five other kinds of effort.

Team leaders should have a high level of skill in the prerequisites which have been described. They should be competent in applying each of the three kinds of problem-solving processes to relevant issues within their role. They should have competencies in using the needs assessment process for determining when which problem-solving process should be the primary one employed. Given

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[19] C. Jung. "The Trainer Change-Agent Role within a School System," in Change in School Systems, G. Watson (ed.). National Training Laboratories, National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1967.

[20] R. Havelock. Planning for Innovation: Through Dissemination and Utilization of Knowledge. Center for Research on the Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1969.

[21] R. Pino, R. Emory, and C. Jung. Preparing Education Training Consultant II: Consultation. Multi-media instructional system for training educators, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Portland, Oregon, 1971.

appropriate kinds of support materials, they should have "skills trainer"[22] competencies for being able to provide training in the prerequisite and problem-solving competencies to their colleagues. Their role is an ideal one for providing this linkage of in-service training of school staff and pre-service training of field-based interns.

To be meaningful, the team leader's efforts to use and provide training for these processes must be complemented in the following five ways:

1. A school district must have structural fiscal commitment to continuous maintenance of its staff's competencies for facilitating change. In-service and field-centered pre-service kinds of training must become standard operational procedure in the functioning of school districts. In a continuously changing world, society cannot continue to ignore this potential in its formal educational system. Continuous learning must become a legitimized function of the professional role of educators.

2. A curriculum component for students in change processes should be part of the strategy. Such processes are basic to an operational definition of helping students "learn how to learn." They are necessary if students are to achieve true responsibleness and individuality. Skill in their use will provide the mechanism of introducing the unique insights of today's youth into the problem-solving efforts of the educational system.

3. Any school district staff including sixty or more persons should have at least 10 percent of that staff trained as cadres of persons who can facilitate particular change efforts of the school district on an occasional basis. Such cadres will probably be most effective if they include roles across vertical, hierarchical categories. Such a cadre would include some central administrators, building administrators, teachers, paraprofessionals, service staff, and students. Team leaders would certainly be a part and might often provide leadership in such cadres. Cadres represent a group with particular responsibility for facilitating any other ad hoc grouping within the district designated as responsible for a particular change effort.

   The constructive potential of this cadre strategy has been demonstrated in the work of Schmuck and Runkel.[23] It maintains organizational norms which support continuous needs assessment, problem identification, and collaborative problem-solving involvement. Such norms are the cornerstone of organizational self-renewal. Without these norms, individuals with special change agent competencies and/or organizational structure, such as having a department of research and development, will probably have little significant impact.

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[22]R. Pino, R. Emory, and C. Jung. Preparing Education Training Consultant I: Skills Training. Multi-media instructional system for training educators, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Portland, Oregon, 1971.

[23]Schmuck and Runkel, op. cit.

4. Depending on the size of the school district, one or more individuals with the higher level change process competencies of supporting individual and organizational self-renewal (such as described earlier as PETC I, II, III) should be provided. Team leaders probably will not need competencies beyond those described in PETC I: Skills Training. In some school districts there may be rationale for them to go on to achieve consultation and organizational development competencies as found in PETC II and III respectively. However, in all but very small school districts there should be one or more persons in other roles in the district who do have these additional change agent competencies. Teacher Corps project directors and/or school district coordinators for Teacher Corps projects will probably be significantly more effective if they have mastered such competencies. The majority of difficulties encountered in Teacher Corps projects probably relate directly to a need for these kinds of higher level change agent competencies.

5. There is abundant evidence concerning organizational functioning in many fields to indicate the need for supportive and actively involved leadership in the school district regarding change needs. Such leadership cannot single-handedly cause a school district to be self renewing in dealing with its change needs. The other parts of the strategy which have been suggested here must be supplied in some manner. But the leadership can keep it from happening by failing to be visibly supportive and actively involved in the change efforts. A strategy for increasing a school district's effectiveness in dealing with change must include some direct involvement and training for the superintendent, his key administrators, and school board members.

Training Team Leaders for Facilitating Change

A potential curriculum for training educators in the facilitation of change which is improvement has been described. It includes personal and interpersonal prerequisites. It includes the ability to use three kinds of problem-solving processes and a needs assessment process. It includes competencies of using processes which support self-renewal of human systems.

Training is available for team leaders which will provide them with any, or all, of these competencies. The recent study of their role provided by Saxe and Ishler[24] indicates they need competencies up through the processes of skills training (PETC I). They would undoubtedly also benefit from having competencies in consultation and organizational development. However, depending upon the conditions of their particular setting, it may often be more reasonable for these latter competencies to be provided from roles such as the school district coordinator of the Teacher Corps project or the project director of the local Teacher Corps program. A much more comprehensive strategy than simply training team leaders is recommended in the previous section of this position paper. Some final suggestions will be made here of possible alternative ways of providing training for the kinds of competencies which have been described.

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[24] R. Saxe and R. Ishler. "Observations of Teacher Corps Team Leaders in Ten Different Programs." Team Leadership Development Project, University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio, 1971.

Until recently, training for the processes to facilitate change has been costly and difficult to obtain. It has existed to a limited extent in scattered university settings. Lippitt's graduate seminars in "planned change"[25] at the University of Michigan or courses related to work at the Human Relations Center of Boston University provide examples. It has been most available at workshop campuses of organizations such as the National Training Laboratories: Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, and from some industrial management training corporations.

In the past four years competency-based instructional systems have been developed to provide training in these processes. Such instructional systems guarantee outcomes and make the training available on a mass dissemination, low-cost basis. A number of such instructional systems have been referred to in this paper. Will Weber has dealt with the concept in detail in his paper, "Team Leaders and Competency-Based Education."

There are some important factors concerning the nature of this kind of training which should be noted. They relate to a kind of trade-off that should be anticipated in considering whether to employ a competency-based instructional system as compared to more costly training conducted by an expert process trainer.

Learning "to do" the behavioral competencies of processes is more complex than traditional learning. There are two major reasons for this. First, it involves receiving behavioral feedback rather than simply cognitive feedback which is common to our more traditional learning experiences. Added support conditions need to be attended to for individuals to be able to utilize constructively behavioral feedback in modifying their behavior. Secondly, the social psychological self one uses to learn with can be modified while learning some of the interpersonal and problem-solving change processes. This raises a need for even greater concern for providing complex support conditions for individuals to have constructive growth experiences.

The complexities of providing constructive growth experiences for individuals in learning processes to facilitate change has kept this training generally unavailable for many years. In order to have reasonable assurance of good outcomes, one needed to provide a highly sophisticated process trainer. This sophistication is not simply intellectual. It includes affective freedom and a non-moralistic openness to human experience. Training of such highly sophisticated process trainers generally takes a long time. Such trainers have been and continue to be in short supply.

Instructional systems described in this paper are contributing to breaking availability of process training out of this bottleneck situation. Perhaps as much as 80 percent of what highly sophisticated process trainers can do may be provided by instructional systems useable by persons with little or no trainer expertise. The trade-off factor between these two alternative ways to provide process training works as follows.

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[25] R. Lippitt, J. Watson, and B. Westley. The Dynamics of Planned Change. Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., New York, 1958.

Competency-based instructional systems for learning processes have a high degree of micro-structure in their design. The criteria for outcomes and assessment techniques for determining competence are explicit in the materials. Given appropriate conditions of entry into the training, trainee achievement of outcomes is highly predictable. Entry conditions involve valid expectations of the nature and purpose of the training. Although outcomes can be guaranteed from this training, relevance cannot be. If a person gets into this training for the wrong reasons, he may find the outcomes are not appropriate to his needs. If a participant identifies an issue of great relevance to him during the training and wants to digress from the predetermined design to pursue it, this is not provided for or supported.

These instructional systems have the advantage that they can be conducted by persons of low level expertise with a guaranteed high quality level of outcome. This makes the training more available and less expensive. They have the disadvantage of not being responsive to non-anticipated issues of relevance.

When one can afford to employ a highly sophisticated process trainer, the particular advantage which might be achieved is the increased capacity to provide training which is personally relevant. Depending on the flexibility of available resources, a sophisticated trainer can influence creation of an evolving training design which maximizes use of resources in relation to momentary participant needs. The possible disadvantage is that there is no guarantee of any gain in competencies. Sometimes there are no, or even negative, outcomes.

A good example of this contrast is found in comparing the design of "sensitivity training"[26] with that of the competency-based instructional systems which have been described. In sensitivity training there is no guarantee of particular outcomes. The commitment is to strive to create the conditions which can maximize the relevance of learning for the participants. When such conditions as trust and willingness to risk revealing self occur, outcomes of personal insight and internalization of interpersonal and group process understandings may be achieved. Such outcomes can be extremely powerful and desirable.

While there can be some overlap of the kinds of outcomes resulting from these two kinds of training designs, there also are the major differences which have been described. Each approach should be understood for what it is and recognized as complementary to the other. Here are some alternative ways to acquire the training.

A school district or a college can support individuals going to places where they can receive the training to become highly sophisticated trainers. This is a long and costly, as well as potentially profitable, undertaking.

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[26] Z. Bradford, J. Gibb, and K. Benne. T-Group Theory and Laboratory Method. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, 1964.

Such an internal person can then provide maximally relevant process training to the system. This is the strategy advocated by Saxe and Ishler in their analysis of observations of ten team leaders.[27] Another alternative is to hire persons with such expertise to come in and do the training on a consultant basis. This is expensive but sometimes wise for dealing with especially difficult issues. Large numbers of staff can be sent to workshops on one or another of the needed processes. This is costly but also sometimes appropriate.

The new competency-based instructional systems are providing a more cost-effective alternative than has previously been available. Once trained, persons in roles such as the team leader can replicate the training for others in the system. School districts can begin to explore carrying out multiple-entry kinds of training strategies as suggested in the preceding section of this paper. As a user of the needed processes, and a key link of providing some of the training to others, the team leader can be central to a strategy for fundamental improvement of education.

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[27]Saxe and Ishler, p. 40.

CONCEPTS OF LEADERSHIP FOR TEAM LEADERS

ABSTRACT

In this paper we review the different approaches to leadership. The applicability of concepts of leadership to the specific situation of Teacher Corps team leaders is then suggested. Finally, an example of a training experience is described.

by

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CONCEPTS OF LEADERSHIP FOR TEAM LEADERS

By Jack Spiess

Leadership is a phenomenon that has been subjected to extensive study and speculation in the past thirty - forty years. There is considerable empirically derived evidence about leadership, but such findings frequently are as contradictory as the various opinions, speculations, and misconceptions of the leadership phenomenon.

It would seem that the plethora of data, findings, conclusions, assumptions, and suppositions on the subject of leadership would support suggestions for the training of Teacher Corps team leaders. This paper represents an attempt to formulate and defend such suggestions.

Approaches to the Study of Leadership

Four general approaches to the study of leadership will be considered in this presentation. Each approach is somewhat diverse, but there are similarities among the four. All may have potential for application to Teacher Corps training programs although applicability for two approaches seems extremely limited.

The central person theory will receive brief consideration with increasing emphasis to be placed on the charismatic, traits or characteristics, and situational or functional schools of thought. Then an attempt will be made at specific applications to team leader situations and training experiences for the development of desired competencies.

The Central Person

Freud followed a well rooted linguistic habit when he labeled as leader the person around whom a group crystallizes. This usage led to what may be described as a central person theory of leadership. It is based upon the idea that there is one central person around whom a group's processes will develop.

A Modern Interpretation

Redl's investigation identified a number of types of activities having to do with formation of a group. However, these seem to be activities which, in our modern parlance, cannot really be classified as acts of leadership.

Instead, rather than connoting leadership as the word is used today, central person would seem to refer more to a role limited to the original formation of some type of group.[1]

As a "full-blown" theory or school of thought concerning leadership, the central person concept would appear too limited. However, as we shall note later, it is possible that such a concept may have utility in a Teacher Corps program.

Charismatic

Charisma as a leadership concept is an extension of the trait approach to be discussed later. Currently, the word "charisma" is an example of one of those overworked terms that suddenly surface from the semantic depths to decorate the prose of writers in various fields. Charisma, indeed, has been found a useful word to describe an elusive charm, magnetism, persuasive power and capacity to excite and inspire others.

The Charismatic Trait

Charisma usually is viewed as a trait, albeit a complex one, almost bordering on the supernatural. It is derivative of the Greek word charis, meaning grace, and is taken from a Biblical context. The picture conveyed is one of a mysterious quality that defies meaningful analysis and exudes the type of charm implied by the word grace.

Some would perceive the charismatic trait as a divinely conferred gift or power. If not seen in this way, charisma may be considered at least as a personal quality giving an individual influence or even authority over large numbers of people. Charisma, then, is fortified by an emotionally held conviction that a specific individual is a leader possessed of an almost magical aura which sets him apart from all others.

An Image

Of course, charisma can be created and carefully nutured. The charismatic leader could be self-made or, more likely, the product of an intensive image building campaign. It follows that the charismatic leader's reign might be very short-lived. His appeal is predicated on apparent success, and failure will not be tolerated by followers of the individual whose attraction is based on charisma. Failure, in fact, could lead to almost instantaneous removal from the leadership role.

Comparisons with Other Approaches

As previously noted, charisma is considered a trait and as such it is an extension of the trait study of leadership. It is possible, too, that an

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[1]Fritz Redl, "Group Emotion and Leadership," Psychiatry, 4, No. 4 (1942), 575-84.

individual perceived as charismatic might serve the group formative role of the central person according to that theory.

Any theory of charismatic leadership could be likened to situational or functional leadership, a school of thought yet to be considered. Leaders with so-called charismatic appeal seem to rise to power and influence in specific situations in times of dire need and strife. Such leaders have certain functions to carry out in a given situation and are, in fact, products of the situation.

Traits or Characteristics

The oldest literary efforts on the subject of leadership reflect attempts to consider the leader as a separate entity possessed of certain definable, describable traits or characteristics.

Methodology

Many studies were undertaken to determine physical, intellectual, and personality traits of a leader sometimes as compared to followers. The method has been one of concentrating primarily on the leader usually identified by virtue of the fact that he holds an office. Some vestiges of this methodology persist, to some degree, today.

Concentration on the leader may be to the total exclusion of the followers or the situation in which the leader or the led might find themselves. Consequently, the leader may be seen only as occupying rather inertly a status position relative to other individuals whose relationships to him are not clear.

Trait Approach: General Findings

Early studies focusing on the leader and his traits or characteristics resulted in lengthy lists of specific physical or personality factors necessary for leadership.

Scholars duly noted that leaders are older, taller, heavier, more athletic, better appearing, and brighter than followers. Leaders can be considered superior to followers in scholarship, knowledge, insight, originality, adaptability, initiative, responsibility, persistence, self-confidence, emotional control, sociability, diplomacy, tact, popularity, prestige, and cooperativeness.

Naturally, leaders have been found to be more extroverted than followers and seem to rank higher in socio-economic status. The deep resonant voices of those identified as leaders can also be heard. And, as noted by one set of writers: "Evidence has been found that well accepted leaders tend to display better adjustment on various personality tests."[2]

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[2]Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander (eds.), Group Dynamics: Research and Theory, Third Edition (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1968), p. 302.

Limitations

In the older approaches, then, attention was given to "leadership as a personal quality" on a special combination of personal characteristics.[3] Even today a basic problem in such approaches seems to be that leadership, per se, is not always defined. Due to this lack of definition investigators have not always agreed as to what is being studied, and methods used sometimes have borne little relationship to leadership as such.

Traits or characteristics deemed necessary for a leader frequently are selected arbitrarily by those following the trait orientation to research. Thus, these so-called important characteristics may be little more than someone's opinion of which attributes leaders should possess.

Trait Lists

Very few of the numerous lists of leadership traits have many items in common. For example, Bird made an extensive examination of the research relevant to leadership traits and characteristics conducted prior to 1940. He was able to compile a long list of traits ostensibly differentiating leaders from nonleaders. Bird's results were discouraging, however, in that only about 5 percent of the traits were common to four or more investigations.[4]

Stogdill's later survey of the literature was only slightly more encouraging in that he found a rather limited number of areas of commonality. According to Stogdill, the average person who occupies a position of leadership should tend to exceed the average member of his group in intelligence, scholarship, dependability, activity, social participation, and socio-economic status. These conclusions were based on uniformly positive evidence from fifteen or more of the studies surveyed.

If factors in common in ten or more studies were considered, Stogdill's list would expand. Added would be sociability, initiative, persistence, knowing how to get things done, self-confidence, alertness to and insight into situations, cooperativeness, popularity, adaptability, and verbal facility.[5]

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[3]Alex Bavelas, "Leadership: Man and Function," Administrative Science Quarterly, 4, No. 4 (March, 1960), 491.

[4]Cartwright and Zander, p. 3.

[5]Ralph M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," in C. G. Browne and Thomas Cohn (eds.). The Study of Leadership (Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1958), pp. 50-61.

Further Limitations

Conclusions such as Stogdill's are based upon perhaps ten to fifteen trait studies from a multitude of such endeavors. Therefore, reports of commonality of traits from list to list really cannot be considered conclusive evidence that all leaders possess certain characteristics.

The obvious point is that despite extensive study researchers have been unable to develop any meaningful list of attributes of leadership. For instance, scholars are not even in agreement on a connection between leadership and such variables as chronological age, height, weight, physique, energy, appearance, dominance, self sufficiency, emotional control, and introversion-extroversion.

Tentative Conclusions

Leadership does not seem to be a matter of specific traits or characteristics applicable at all times to all situations. A person does not become a leader merely because he possesses some combination of traits. Again, following Stogdill, "the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers."[6]

Thus, we have another possible approach to the study of leadership. Situational aspects should be considered because traits or characteristics may be relevant only to specific situations. Analysis of leadership, then, should involve not only study of leaders as individuals but also of situations and groups involved in the specific situations. The Teacher Corps team is such a group and is operating in given situations.

Situational-Functional

Obviously, the attempt to identify traits or characteristics distinguishing leaders from non-leaders has met with most limited success. Researchers very gradually appear to have come to the realization that even certain minimal abilities probably required of all leaders are widely distributed among leaders and non-leaders alike. Apparent, too, is that leadership traits necessary for effectiveness in one group or situation may be quite different from those necessary in another setting.

Situational Aspects

Many writers have dealt with the situational aspects of leadership. Gibb, for one, insisted that leadership always is relative to the situation. He noted that the set of circumstances existing at a given moment could determine which attributes of personality should be exhibited by the leader.[7]

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[6]Ibid., p. 58.

[7]Cecil A. Gibb, "The Principles and Traits of Leadership," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 42 (1947), 273.

Group Emphasis

The situational or functional approach should have utility for Teacher Corps team leader training programs. Such an approach incorporates a most basic concern for leadership in the group context and allows for analysis of leadership needs in relation to group dynamics and functions. The team leader is concerned with leadership in a small group context. It is necessary, therefore, that the team leader be considered as a leader of a group in a rather specific situation in which goals may be discernible.

Non-Generalizable Leadership

The idea that leadership is not necessarily generalizable from situation to situation is fundamental to the situational-functional point of view. The way an individual leads in one situation may or may not be applicable to another situation. The leadership techniques required for effectiveness can depend on the situational variables. The needed leadership skills also may depend on the somewhat unique functions expected of the aspiring leader in the particular situation in which he and a group of potential followers find themselves.

As pointed out by one writer, it may not be meaningful to speak of an effective leader or an ineffective leader. Instead, "we can only speak of a leader who tends to be effective in one situation and ineffective in another."[8] In other words, leadership techniques, or the leader himself, successful in one situation may be totally inadequate in another set of circumstances.

Description of Situational Leadership

A situational-functional orientation to the leadership phenomenon literally cries out for some description of leadership as an act or process. Simply stated, leadership situationally and functionally can be viewed as the performance of acts which assist a group in achieving its preferred outcome. Implicit in the description are the leader's responsibilities to help a group define its goals, assist in the selection of means to these desired ends, and direct activities along the lines selected as best means for achievement of objectives

This is another way of saying that leadership as a functional process consists of such actions as those which aid in (1) setting goals, (2) moving the group toward its goals, (3) improving the quality of interactions among members, (4) building cohesiveness of the group, and (5) making resources available to the group.

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[8]Fred E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 261.

Leader Influences

Various writers have expressed the point of view that leadership may be performed by one or several members of a group. These theorists agree that groups differ from one another in many ways. Therefore, the actions required for the achievement of goals of one group may be quite different from those of another. Such diversities from group to group and situation to situation tend to determine which group functions will be needed at a particular time and who among the members will perform them.

Most students of leadership in the group context now recognize that a "leader" exerts more influence on the group and its activities than does the average member. Agreement is less apparent concerning influences that are uniquely those of leadership. The question becomes: What actually constitutes leadership?

Functions of Leadership

Among those who have attempted to answer this question, Cattell offered perhaps the broadest conception. He suggested that any member of the group leads to the extent that the group is modified by his presence.[9] This inclusive view holds that all group member actions that help the group in any way to achieve its goals are leadership functions.

Theoretical Advantages

Although Cattell's view really is too broad to be of much assistance in team leader programs, it does have distinct theoretical advantages. Leadership and group performance when viewed from Cattell's perspective are intertwined. Consequently, consideration can be given to questions of determining what goals are important for the group at a given point in time, which functions are important for attaining these goals, and which actions by members of the group contribute to the functions. In this way, acts of leadership can be noted as contributing to goal achievement, group satisfaction, human relations, and all other aspects of group performance. There is another advantage to Cattell's perspective. Leadership can be viewed as something that a person may display in varying degrees. This is in contrast to the idea that a person either has leadership completely or not at all.

Tasks

Some writers have preferred to restrict leadership to the performance of a rather limited set of group functions such as planning, decision-making, and coordinating. A functional-task approach reflects the work of Krech and Crutchfield who listed fourteen tasks of leadership. These tasks include executive, planner, policy-maker, expert; external group representative,

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[9]Raymond B. Cattell, "New Concepts for Measuring Leadership in Terms of Group Syntality," Human Relations, 4 (1951), 183.

controller of internal relationships, purveyor of rewards and punishments, arbitrator, exemplar group symbol, surrogate for individual responsibility, ideologist, father figure, and scapegoat.[10]

The Multiplicity of Leadership

Whether or not the fourteen functions really represent the scope of leadership may not be too important. The important point is that all these functions may at one time or another be vital to a group. Assuming that at least some may fall under the heading of leadership, the multiplicity of leader functions becomes obvious.

The point is that any member of a group could be a leader in the sense that he may engage in actions that serve the group in its efforts toward goal achievement. The so-called leader, as such, may be skilled at some of the functions but completely lacking expertise in others. Other group members may take up the slack as needed and exercise varying types of leadership at particular times under specific circumstances. This is the concept of multiplicity of leadership first alluded to in another context under the heading, "Leader Influences."

Goal Attainment and Group Maintenance

The changing nature of leadership and required tasks can be demonstrated by distinguishing between group needs and functions fitted to the various needs and tasks. It goes almost without saying that most group objectives can be subsumed under (1) the achievement of some specific group goal, or (2) the maintenance or strengthening of the group itself.

Initiating Structure and Consideration

Some students of leadership and the group process have referred to goal achievement as "initiating structure" and group maintenance as "consideration."[11] Initiating structure may be described as delineating behavior on the part of the leader or a leader's attempts to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure. Initiating structure, also known as "getting the job done" or "task oriented behavior," may include several types of actions on the part of a leader. One version includes:

1. Making his attitudes clear to the staff

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[10]David Krech and Richard S. Crutchfield, Theory and Problems of Social Psychology, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1948), pp. 417-22.

[11]Andrew W. Halpin, "How Leaders Behave," in Fred D. Carver and Thomas Sergiovanni (eds.), Organizations and Human Behavior: Focus on Schools, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969), p. 290.

2. Trying out new ideas with staff
3. Ruling with an "iron hand" (scored negatively)
4. Criticizing poor work
5. Speaking in a matter not to be questioned
6. Assigning staff members to particular tasks
7. Working without a plan (scored negatively)
8. Maintaining definite standards of performance
9. Emphasizing the meeting of deadlines
10. Encouraging use of uniform procedures
11. Making certain that the leader's part in the organization is understood by all
12. Asking that staff members follow standard rules and regulations
13. Letting staff members know what is expected of them
14. Seeing to it that staff members are working up to capacity
15. Seeing to it that the work of staff members is coordinated.[12]

Consideration, sometimes known as "building morale," may include:

1. Doing personal favors for staff members
2. Doing little things to make it pleasant being a staff member
3. Being easy to understand
4. Finding time to listen to staff members
5. Keeping to himself (scored negatively)
6. Looking out for the personal welfare of individual staff members
7. Refusing to explain his actions (scored negatively)
8. Acting without consulting staff (scored negatively)
9. Being slow to accept new ideas (scored negatively)

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[12]Ibid., p. 291.

10. Treating all staff members as his equals

11. Being willing to make changes

12. Being friendly and approachable

13. Making staff members feel at ease when talking to the leader

14. Putting staff suggestions into operation

15. Getting staff approved on important matters before going ahead.[13]

Coordination as Leadership

As previously indicated, any behavior in a group situation may be significant. It may have significance both for goal achievement (initiation of structure) and group maintenance (consideration).

The two main classes of leader functions in the group may be performed by any member. Yet they also may well be within the province of the acknowledged leader. However, there are groups in which "specialists" in goal achievement and group maintenance seem to emerge.

Perhaps there is one person who strives for task or goal accomplishment while another satisfies social and emotional needs of members. In such situations the group's effective performance depends upon the development of appropriate coordination between the "specialists." It is possible, then, that this coordination becomes the responsibility of the person designated as leader. This may be true even when the leader is playing the role of one of the "specialists."

Additional Evidence--Initiating Structure-Consideration

The idea that initiating structure and consideration are the important dimensions of leadership has been reinforced by research in large organizations. Factor analytic studies at the Ohio State University showed that the two factors, initiating structure and consideration, represent 83 percent of the common variance in leader behavior in the organizational context.[14] According to the Ohio State evidence, items with a high positive loading on initiating structure are similar to those discussed earlier under the heading "Initiating Structure and Consideration." These are the leader behaviors tending to specify role expectations for members and seeking to establish patterns of organization, communication channels and ways of getting a job done.

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[13] Ibid.

[14] Cartwright and Zander, p. 307.

As could be anticipated, items with high positive loadings on the consideration dimension were associated with what might be termed morale building behavior. This is behavior perceived as indicating friendship, mutual trust, respect, and some feeling of warmth between the leader and the group.15

Conclusions

Leader behavior high in both initiation of structure and consideration efforts should tend to increase group effectiveness. This is to say that more productive groups in terms of goal accomplishment should result from leader behavior rated high in both initiating structure and consideration. There have been some mixed results from research, but this conclusion does appear valid. In practice, then, any group leader who simultaneously emphasizes goal achievement and group maintenance should find that he is associated with a productive group. In other words, if task, structure, etc. are stressed in conjunction with morale building activities, the result should be an effective group.

Perhaps within the initiating structure and consideration dimensions of leader behavior it is possible to find some ideas for the training of Teacher Corps team leaders. These are individuals who will lead a particular group, the instructional team, in rather specific situations.

Team Leadership

For Teacher Corps purposes, team teaching can be rather loosely defined. The term means: "A team of teachers, interns, and paraprofessionals which is directly responsible for necessary instruction for a group of students larger than conventional classroom size."16

The Teacher Corps team leader is a member of a working team of adults. He may be a "lead teacher" or "master teacher" with responsibility for both the instruction of children and team personnel. Primarily, though, the team leader should be seen as leader of an instructional team actually constituting a small group of adults. In addition, of course, he must have the skill to work harmoniously with the school administration and total faculty.

A Differentiated Staff

As noted, the Teacher Corps team leader bears responsibility for leading an instructional team comprised of adults. The team is a group but a somewhat differentiated group in that different categories of people participate.

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15 Ibid.

16 U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Teacher Corps Guidelines, October, 1970, p. 45.

The concept of differentiated staffing is a form of team teaching although differentiated staffing is not synonymous with team teaching. Instead, it is a special type organization for instruction on a team teaching basis utilizing hierarchial principles or differentiation of rank. In a differentiated staffed elementary school people of various ranks are included on the instructional team. Important to the concept is the idea that various specialties can be brought to bear in the instructional process.

Purported advantages of differentiated staffing include: (1) being more resourceful in the use of educational personnel, (2) being more fluid in the use of space, time, and resources, (3) bringing about a change to pluralistic, collegial organization and leadership, and (4) clustering of certain responsibilities around specific types of teaching roles.[17]

The Team and Differentiated Roles

The Teacher Corps team leader works with a differentiated staff or team. Roles and ranks are differentiated in that a typical team might consist of a leader, teachers, interns, and paraprofessionals. Consequently, the team leader's leadership endeavors are cast in a setting of a somewhat heterogeneous group with, hopefully, a homogeneity of goals and objectives.

Ascribed-Status Position

The team leader probably has been imposed on the group. He has not emerged directly from the work group in pure situational-functional theoretical fashion. Probably he has been appointed or imposed from without although the teacher members of the team may have had some voice in his selection.

The leader perhaps is possessed of some type of apparent expertise which may be related directly to the situation in which he and the team will find themselves. The point is, though, he has not, in all probability, emerged directly from the group in pure situational fashion due to the perceived needs of group members. Therefore, the Teacher Corps team leader well may begin with an ascription of leadership or status as a leader which has not yet been earned.

Theoretical Applications

The status leader begins activities with the group in a position that may be described in terms of the previously discussed central person theory of leadership. The leader will be, during the group's early formative period, the person around whom group processes will revolve.

It may be possible that a certain charismatic aura surrounding the leader will become apparent, particularly if he is one whose reputation for expertise, effectiveness, and accomplishment has preceded him. Hopefully,

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[17]Christina W. Needham and David Snyder, "Differentiated Staffing," Kappa Delta Pi Record, 6 (October, 1969), 27.

though, charisma, an elusive quality, at best, will not be an important attribute. It can be hoped that the team in its early stages of development will not be faced with some of the acute problem situations which help spawn charismatic leaders.

Perhaps, in terms of one of the older theories, the appointed team leader possesses some characteristic traits usually associated with leadership. It can be pointed out that at least someone thought he had leadership potential based on purported expertise or some combination of rather specific traits deemed desirable for one in a position of leadership.

The trait theory, as such, might not be completely ridiculous when applied to Teacher Corps team leaders. The leader will have to demonstrate at least personality traits considered necessary for the accomplishment of rather specific educational tasks. Also, the leader must possess traits that do not deviate too far from those of other team members. To lead he cannot be too different from the followers and also must be able to relate to the children with whom he works. He should, though, exceed his group in the characteristics needed for leadership in the group's problem situations.

A Situational-Functional Approach

A situational-functional approach to leadership seems best suited for the Teacher Corps team leader. The team leader leads in a small group framework with rather specific and difficult educational objectives. Consequently, a situational-functional orientation appears particularly valid for Teacher Corps in that it couples a concern for group leadership with opportunities for analysis of needs in relation to group dynamics and functions.

Competency Demonstrations

The team leader in a Teacher Corps situation must have competencies in what could be termed "group assisting functions." He is called upon continually to aid the group in (1) setting goals, (2) moving toward goals, (3) improving the quality of interactions among and between team members, (4) building cohesiveness in the group, and (5) making relevant resources available to the group. In short, the team leader influences the group in the whole range of goal oriented and directed activities. He is, among other things, team organizer, planner, synthesizer, coordinator, influencer, consultant, arbitrator, surrogate, resource person, and sometimes even a father figure.

The team leader's competencies must be expanding and constantly shifting and demonstrable according to the unique needs of the team and its changing situations. In addition, and very importantly, the team leader must demonstrate capability as the team's external representative to a multitude of other groups.

Task Dimension Competencies

The dual concepts of goal attainment and group maintenance would appear to have much merit for inclusion in Teacher Corps team leader training

programs. This is the previously cited idea of "Initiating Structure" and "Consideration."[19]

Initiating structure is task oriented behavior by the leader and means that group members' responsibilities are clearly spelled out and reinforced whenever necessary. Implicit in such actions by the leader is ample ongoing communication. This, of course, is a complete communications loop including (1) leader to team member communication, (2) team member to team member communication, and (3) meaningful feedback from various team members to the designated leader. Among the competencies to be demonstrated by the team leader striving for effectiveness in the task dimension are:

1. Making his opinions, attitudes, wishes, ideas, concerns, etc. clear to the entire team.

2. Trying out new ideas (his own and others) with team members.

3. Eliminating impressions that he is a dogmatic, autocratic leader.

4. Criticizing ineffective performance when necessary but doing so in as impersonal manner as possible.

5. Speaking in a manner not to be questioned when situation most obviously calls for such behavior.

6. Assigning team members to particular and specific tasks when such assignments seem appropriate for goal attainment.

7. Working consistently with an overall, cooperatively developed, goal-directed plan subject to modification as dictated by unique situational needs.

8. Maintaining definite, consistent standards of performance based upon demonstrated abilities and apparent potentialities of team members.

9. Emphasizing the meeting of deadlines when required for achievement of team goals.

10. Encouraging use of uniform, standard procedures but not at the expense of creativity and ingenuity on the part of team members.

11. Making certain that his role on the team and in the school, school system, and community is understood by all.

12. Requiring that team members follow standard rules and regulations, again, not at the expense of creativity and ingenuity required for the accomplishment of the Teacher Corps mission.

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[19]Halpin, p. 290.

13. Letting team members know the leader's expectations for them based upon thorough knowledge of capabilities and potentialities of individual team members.

14. Seeing that all team members work up to capacity (again, based upon knowledge of capabilities and potentialities for contributions to specific situations).

15. Coordinating the work of all in the educational endeavor.

Consideration-Morale Competencies

The task-oriented initiation of structure leader behavior is extremely important for the success of the Teacher Corps instructional team, particularly in view of the differentiations in training and experience to be found on the typical team. However, observations of such units in various elementary schools indicate that the most serious leadership failures might lie in the consideration dimension.

Morale factors, indeed, are important to any group. They are particularly vital for Teacher Corps teams and the teaching situations in which such teams operate.

Among the competencies to be demonstrated for the consideration or morale dimension are:

1. Endeavoring to make it as pleasant as possible to be a team member.

2. Communicating in a way that makes it possible for all team members to understand the team leader.

3. Finding time to listen to team members no matter what the problem.

4. Mixing with fellow team members but still preserving some air of leadership capability when needed.

5. Looking out for the personal welfare of individual team members in all aspects of the teaching-learning situation.

6. Explaining in explicit detail, when needed, the leader's actions (by means of the total communications network).

7. Acting only after consultation with team members.

8. Being quick to consider new ideas in consultation with appropriate team members.

9. Treating all team members as equals.

10. Being receptive to change, particularly when need for change is perceived by team members.

11. Being as friendly and approachable as specific circumstances allow.

12. Making team members feel at ease when talking to the team leader.

13. Putting team suggestions into operation whenever feasible.

14. Obtaining team approval on important matters before going ahead.

Shared Leadership Competencies

It is clear that diverse roles and functions are required for the success of any group. This is particularly true for a Teacher Corps instructional team. In brief, much is to be done if the team is to succeed in its task. The team leader as one individual will not be able to do all things. The team leader's obligation to establish, develop, nurture, maintain, and support leadership activities by other team members should be obvious. This certainly is true if leadership is defined broadly as any action serving the team in efforts directed at goal attainment.

The team leader must be competent in encouraging others to accept responsibilities for activities that might be construed as leadership acts. Team members must "take up the slack," so to speak, as the needs of the situation indicate. In this way varying types of leadership and required skills can be focused on problems at particular times under specific circumstances. Thus, the entire team becomes a reservoir of potential leadership talent.

Climate Fostering Competencies

The competency to foster a free climate in which leadership can be shared is imperative for the effective team leader. Therefore, the consideration or morale dimension of leader behavior again should be emphasized. Implicit is the necessity for complete and reliable communication so that needs of the situation and capabilities of various team members may be apparent.

To be effective the leader must recognize and free the potential within his team. He must have the willingness to share the privileges and responsibilities of leadership. This is absolutely necessary when it is obvious that shared leadership will be conducive to achievement of group objectives.

It should be pointed out, though, that final responsibility or accountability cannot be shared. Although he may share leadership privileges and limited responsibilities, it is the designated team leader who will be accountable in the final analysis.

A Recommendation

It is recommended that Teacher Corps team leader programs concentrate on the consideration aspects of leader behavior. This is not to say that task oriented behavioral objectives should be neglected. They, too, should have attention and should be developed for the day when leaders, teachers, and interns, at least, will be products of competency based teacher education programs.

However, heavy emphasis on consideration or "team relations" factors is needed now. Training programs should be designed to establish and nourish competencies based upon consideration or morale building and team maintenance. This can be accomplished by an approach which begins with the generating of behavioral objectives aimed at team leader competence in the consideration dimension. Certainly some type of sensitivity sessions could be a significant segment of the training program, but, if so, such efforts should be geared to specific behavioral objectives.

Teacher Corps team leadership is a situational activity. Leader techniques should be relevant to the situation. The situation definitely calls for techniques that can be perceived as high in consideration as well as in task orientation.

A Training Experience

Team leader training programs could be based on various behavioral objectives developed from any of the fifteen competencies listed for effectiveness in leadership's task dimension.[20] As previously stated, such competencies are vital to Teacher Corps success because teams operate in highly task oriented situations.

However, it is my opinion that team leader failures probably occur more in the consideration or morale and group maintenance dimension than in task orientation activities. Therefore, it has been suggested that Teacher Corps leader training efforts in the near future should emphasize team morale building and group maintenance competencies.

Importance of Communication

The need for communication is a common thread running through the various leadership competencies. This seems true whether the competencies are in the task-structure or in the consideration-morale dimension.

The importance of an adequate communications system is particularly obvious in the consideration aspects of leader behavior. It may well be that communication skills are the most essential set of tools a leader can possess. This seems so true when communication as a process is described as a means by which purposes are clarified and individual and group efforts coordinated.[21] This, after all, is the essense of leadership.

Perhaps the one best way to improve communications within a teaching team would be to improve the team's cohesiveness and commonality of purpose. Cohesiveness could be considered as stemming from the consideration dimension. If so, commonality of purpose should be seen as having roots in structure or task.

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[20]Halpin, p. 291.

[21]James P. Rouleau, Staff Communication and the Superintendent of Schools, (College Park, Maryland: Washington Area School Study Council, April, 1963), p. 14.

A Specific Recommendation

A general recommendation was offered under another heading. It is suggested that, for the near future, Teacher Corps team leader programs concentrate on the consideration and sensitivity aspects of leader behavior.

The general recommendation now can be made more specific. Due to the demonstrated importance of communications, it is suggested that training programs commence with work in communications for leaders. Such activity should be carried out with full recognition that communication always is a two-way process.

An Illustrative Experience

This specific recommendation is offered because communication skills are requisities for effective leadership.

Context: Leadership

Major Subject Area: Consideration Dimension of Leader Behavior

Target Population: Teacher Corps Instructional Team Leaders

Behavioral Objective:

Team leaders will identify barriers to communication.

Note

The leader should identify and analyze points of stress (noticeable tension or open conflict) to determine causes.

It is important to recognize that while some conflicts are conscious, many are not consciously recognized by the participants.

Treatment:

Trainees, in cooperation with a trainer, reconstruct a team planning episode with emphasis on discovery and diagnosis of points of stress and misunderstandings between leader and team, team and leader, and individual team members.

An analysis should then be made to determine causes and effects and interrelationships.

Materials:

(1) Video tape recorder for taping of original team planning episode, (2) resource materials as needed including forms for Interaction Analysis to be used separately by trainer-observer and trainees, (3) text--Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander (eds.), Group Dynamics, third edition--selected readings to be assigned in advance of specific training experience.

Evaluation:

Team leaders will correctly identify barriers to communication represented in training materials.

Selected Readings

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GROUP PROCESS IN TASK TEAMS

ABSTRACT

The teaching team as a task team has two objectives: to accomplish its assigned task and to maintain itself as a group. The development of a positive group climate is a prerequisite to attaining both of these two objectives. Valid, two-way communication within the team and between the team and the larger social system is essential to success.

by

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GROUP PROCESS IN TASK TEAMS

By Robert Chin and Herschel Hadley

In this paper we identify some of the important processes which affect and occur in task teams. The saliency of specific processes will depend on the particular situation, your perceptions of that situation, and your purposes as observer of that situation. But, in some degree, the processes generally described here are relevant to all task teams. Each task team will have to consider the relevance and usefulness for their situation of the processes described. In the first part of the paper we discuss system relationships and team orientations. Next we consider the interpersonal dimensions of task teams. Processes of problem solving complete the paper. We are assuming that the purpose of observation is not only to understand, but in addition to improve team operation.

Team Tasks and System Relationships

An educational system is composed of interlocking roles each with official and unofficial expectations. These expectations are composed of both product or task expectations and expectations of behavior. Figure 1 is a general diagram of the way these roles interact with respect to the teaching team as a task team. We are concerned with the functioning of the teaching team as a task team within a system since the processes within the task team will reflect in some ways their system relationships.

One of the processes to consider is the difference between operating on line and off line, in action versus sharing (behind the scenes), conduct. While more research is needed on the relationship between these modes of behavior, it seems clear that when a teacher or a teaching team is working directly with students, for instance, the situation is one of performance-crisis behavior: Decisions and actions must be made relatively quickly out of established patterns and accepted norms of behavior without stopping to consider alternatives. For example, teachers do not squabble in front of students. In the relatively relaxed, behind the scenes environment of the task team while exchanging or reviewing experience and planning new action, behavior tends to be different. There is opportunity to reconsider actions, gather data to diagnose the situation, consider other ways of performing, and develop plans for future action.

This also raises the question of whether the task team sees itself as a coordinating team or an operating team. A coordinating team is one where the members perform their on-line or crisis roles separately without face-to-face contact and meet as a team to provide a framework of overall action

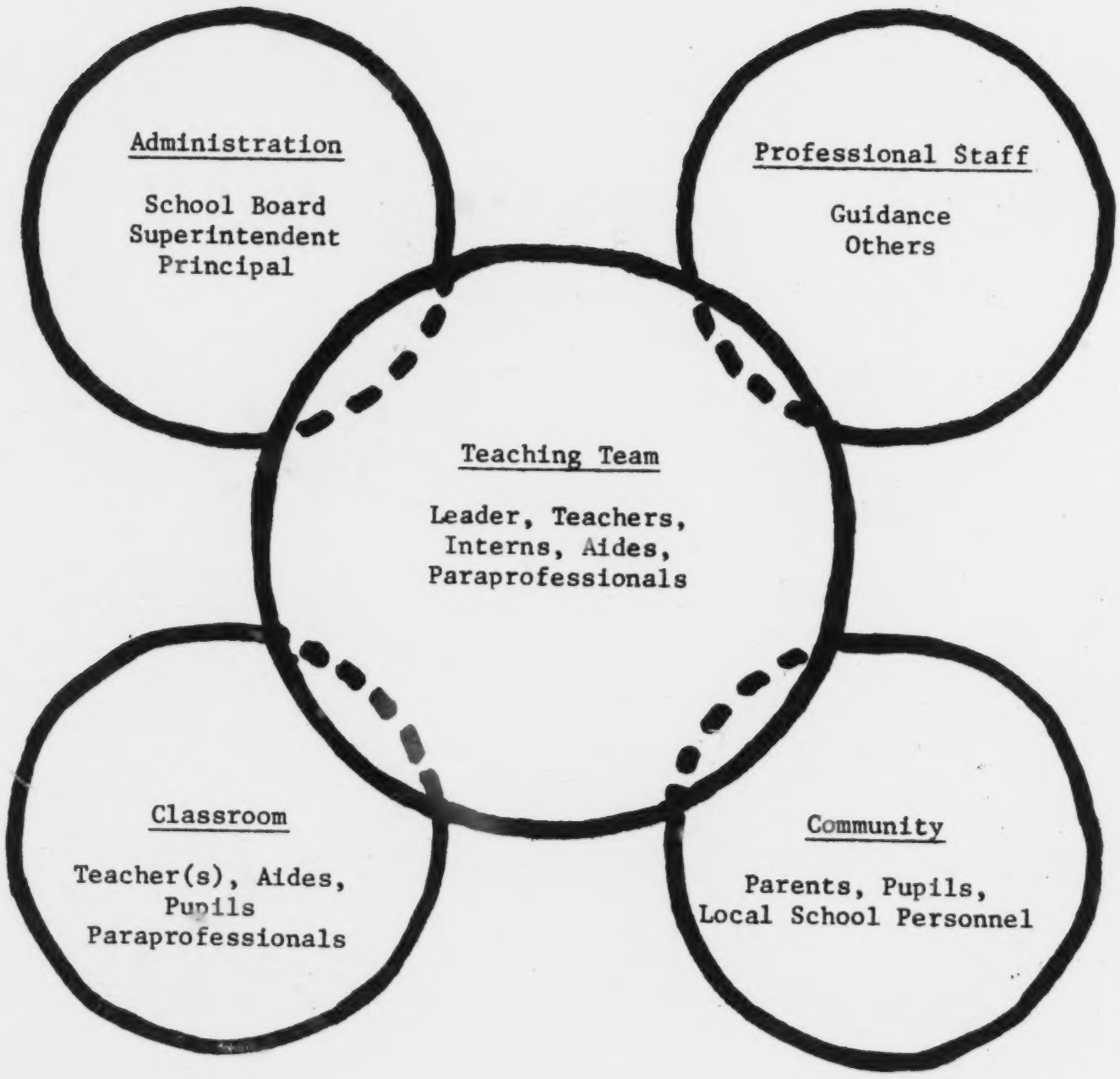

Figure 1.
Educational System Relationships

which ties together these separate performances. An operating team works together face-to-face on-line as well as behind the scenes. While group processes within the task team may be similar in both cases, the cohesiveness and interdependence of the task team and its members becomes of major importance for an operating task team. An operating team also has different kinds of data for analysis since all members of the team have shared in the experience. It is important for the task team to be aware of whether it sees its task as managerial (coordinating) or supervisory (operating) and of the difference in values arising from this perception.

Another level for a task team is that of establishing policy. This function stresses the team's relation to the larger system within which the team operates and the policies of that larger system. The team needs to be aware of the policies it is using or is establishing by its actions and correlate these with those of the larger system. Disparities between policies of the team and the larger system will need to be viewed in terms of whether the disparities are significant, changes necessary, who is involved in accomplishing them, channels of communication and influence, etc.

One task for the team, then, is to find out how it sees itself--as coordinating or operating, and in regard to policy making. It is important to recognize the functions and to understand the difference in emphasis upon group processes. Clearly, the Teacher Corps teaching team is an operating team. When the team works together as a face-to-face team while on line (with students), processes encouraging cohesiveness, interdependency, and group integrated behavior become a critical objective for team accomplishment as well as processes of communication, problem solving, and decision making as an off-line group. In other types of teams it is essential to insure adequate group maintenance processes, but the focus on processes is for the purpose of accomplishing the task.

Another consideration important for the task team is the relation between members' roles in the larger system and their role in the task team. Roles in the larger system differ with respect to subject matter competence, technical skill, status, and official position. Trying to ignore these differences tends to establish an unrealistic pseudo-democracy which can hamper the task team's effectiveness. While such differences can be viewed as invidious distinctions, it is more useful to recognize them and see them as resources for the team to use, when relevant, in achieving its purpose. Accomplishing this recognition and use of different resources while insuring individual self-respect, commitment, and participation is one of the criteria of an effective task team. These outside roles and their relationships to other parts of the larger system are part of the data which the task team should recognize and use.

Another aspect of roles in the larger system which the task team faces is behavior <u>within</u> the task team itself. If we assume that part, at least, of the task of the team is to develop innovative learning experiences, it would seem to follow that change, of some kind or degree, is part of the team's task. Accomplishing this may require some change by members within the team from their usual behaviors. Even accomplishment of a team approach to teaching is for some persons a major change in behavior. This change

includes acquiring a range of skills in interpersonal behavior required for effective group processes. Identifying customary behaviors from our roles in the larger system and determining which are dysfunctional in our team relationships is part of the task.

One of the tasks of the teaching team, then, is to make explicit within the team at least the various roles that members see themselves and other members performing in the larger system and to examine how these role behaviors do or do not meet the needs of the teaching team. For example: Is there an age discrepancy within the team that is causing me to assume a teaching role rather than a participative role? Am I so locked in to my administrative role that my main concern is defending the status quo rather than helping change it to meet new goals? It becomes clear that a positive group climate where these and similar issues can be brought up, confronted, and worked through by all members is essential.

There are two other areas of change which deserve task team consideration. One is change in role behavior outside the group, e.g., teacher-student behavior. The question here is to decide how learnings within the task team about group processes and interpersonal relations can transfer to situations outside the task group. What learnings can we transfer and how should we transfer them?

Another area for consideration of possible change is the larger system itself. It may be that the goals of the task team, at least stated initially, seem to call for no change in existing relationships and practices that comprise the larger system. Conversely, the need for change in the larger system may be clear from the start or may develop later. In either case, when the need for change becomes apparent, the task team will have to determine and develop resources and skills which can bring about communication, influence, and an organizational climate in the larger system which will facilitate change.

Methods of effecting change in the larger system comprise a field of knowledge and practice which has been labeled Organization Development. Organization Development theory and practice has in large measure grown from work on group processes in small groups. Some of the concepts and processes useful in small groups can be transferred to the larger system--school building unit in most cases. However, the transfer is not simple because the purposes of the larger system and the small group or task team are usually different, and the larger system is more complex. For example, the objectives of intimacy and acceptance as well as problem solving and decision making while they are relevant to both situations would require quite different emphases and approaches in the two situations.

Discussion of Organization Development theory and practice with respect to the larger system--here we think of a school district--is beyond the scope of this paper. The references given below, however, will identify sources which treat this aspect more fully. Our intention is to make the task team aware that part of its task may be or become that of bringing about change in the larger system, and, if so, consideration must be given to acquiring additional knowledge and skills or ways to transfer team knowledge and skills for use in the larger system.

Interpersonal Aspects of Task Team

A task team viewed as a group has two objectives. One is a task to be accomplished. The other is to maintain the group in such a way that it is effective in accomplishing this task. Accomplishment of both objectives is essential, and accomplishment of the task depends heavily upon the relationships among members of the task team and the processes affecting these relationships. These processes comprise group creation and maintenance. We will focus first on group processes affecting relationships among members of the task team and then on team skills more directly related to task accomplishment and the ways these are affected by group processes.

This sequence does not imply that the task team must work first on maintenance and then on task processes. It is often more useful to start with task accomplishment work (goal setting, problem solving). However, the team must be sensitive to needs for group maintenance when they arise and flexible enough to focus on and resolve them. The total experience of the team can be viewed as cycling and recycling with different aspects of the group process receiving emphasis in each cycle.

While our remarks are general in the sense that they apply to all groups in one way or another, we will also have in mind and comment to some extent on their particular relevance to educational organizations. Also, we have in mind a task team formally established for a reasonably specific purpose--teaching a group of pupils--as distinguished, say, from a sensitivity group whose primary, if not only, task is increasing the learnings of individual members.

A group is created from an assemblage of individuals. Some of these individuals have shared experiences in other situations. For others this is the first direct contact. In both cases this assembly is in some respects a new situation. It is important for members to recognize this fact. Recognition of this fact means that energy and time must be expended to work with personal needs of individuals in new situations. Otherwise the team can operate only on a superficial, formal level. At a formal level there is comparatively minimal use of group resources and minimal task accomplishment by the team. (The task may be accomplished by the efforts of a few individuals, but this is not the criterion of an effective group.)

Some of these personal needs that individuals experience in a new interpersonal situation are related to identity, goals (needs), power (control), and intimacy. Life is a continuous process of acquiring identity, and there are several levels of identity (personal, situational, social) to consider. In the case of a new group, it is situational identity that concerns us: How do I see myself operating in this team? How will others see me or expect to see me? What will individuals and the group want me to do? What kind of behavior is acceptable?

My goals and needs and their relations to team goals also must be recognized and accepted (by me and the group) before I can divert attention to less immediate matters such as the external, assigned task. What do I want from the team? Will the goals of the team aid achievement of my goals, or

can they be made consistent with my goals? What have I to offer the group, how can I offer it most appropriately, and how will others react when I offer? Closely related to this is the question of how much power, control, and influence I can expect to have in the team. What is the source of power in this team: individual ability or knowledge, organizational authority, age? Will my influence in the team depend on pleasing the official leader? Also important to me as a person in a new situation is the degree of intimacy expected. How close will our relationships be? How well will I get to know other members as persons and how well will they get to know me? How intense will our feelings be about each other, and is this going to be uncomfortable? Associated with this is the question of how much we can trust each other and whether our experience together will increase or diminish trust.

When the above concerns of individuals are active, a major portion of the team's collective energy will be dissipated because each individual is seeking answers to his needs. When signals occur that these needs are active, such concerns must be brought into the open and worked on in the group. That these issues are active is indicated by various behaviors. One indicator is a high level of aggressive behavior such as attacking others' ideas and suggestions, resisting anyone who represents authority, or interrupting others and downgrading their ideas. Another is blocking behavior when an individual reacts negatively to most group activities and is resistant or in opposition most of the time. Seeking recognition by calling attention to oneself and making sure everyone knows one's credentials is another sign that personal issues are unresolved. The problem can also be expressed by trying to manipulate the group and asserting personal dominance.

The behaviors listed above at least have the advantage that they are active attempts to make the group focus on problems of individual needs. They provide a way which the group can use to bring the problems into the open and deal with them. It is more difficult to be aware of the significance of withdrawal behavior where the individual psychologically leaves the group. In this case the member doesn't offer ideas, opinions, or feelings about group activities, and personal energies and resources are not available to the team. Overt expressions of this in team meetings are splinter conversations with one or two other members and nonverbal expressions of boredom or disinterest.

These personal issues are particularly strong during the beginning period of each new group. But whenever they occur in the life of the team, they must be worked through to some level which permits members to channel their emotional energies toward team effort. These issues are never fully resolved in the sense that they are once settled and can be ignored. They will become important and recur in various ways, at various times, and in various situations. Whenever they occur, team members must be able to recognize their importance, focus on them, and devote time and effort to working them through. During early stages of team formation personal issues may be of primary concern so that it is necessary to work on them until enough resolution is reached to permit members to shift their energies and focus on team objectives.

Having reached this working stage of team development, members need to perform certain functions if the team is to be effective. These functions or functional behaviors of members are usually classified as maintenance functions and task functions. Maintenance functions are those necessary to maintain the necessary personal relationships among members. Task functions are necessary to further direct accomplishment of the team's tasks.

Maintenance Functions

Following is one way to categorize behaviors related to maintenance functions:

1. Harmonizing: Helping members identify, explore, and mediate differences; reducing tension.

2. Gate Keeping: Facilitating members' participation; suggesting procedures that permit as much member sharing as possible; keeping track of where people are and seeing that they are given the opportunity to express themselves.

3. Encouraging: Being friendly, warm, and responsive to others; paying others the respect of listening carefully and letting them know you are interested in and value their contributions.

4. Compromising: Being open to hear others' ideas and opinions and able to adjust one's own position; admitting error; when one's own status is involved in a difference, offering a compromise which yields status; modifying one's position in the interest of team cohesion and growth.

5. Standard Setting and Testing: Helping the team become aware of the procedures it is using; finding out how comfortable the team is with these procedures; suggesting how procedures might be changed; helping team become aware of norms (approved behaviors) which have developed so the group can test their acceptability and usefulness.

6. Observing: Keeping track of activities and member interaction and providing this information to group as data to help it consider and learn from analysis of experience together and help team gain perspective on its behavior.

Task Functions

Task function behaviors can be categorized as:

1. Initiating: Proposing tasks or goals; helping identify a problem; suggesting an approach, procedures, or ideas for solving a problem; suggesting new directions for group.

2. Seeking: Asking for data (expressions of feeling, facts and information) about problem; asking for statement or estimate; asking for priorities (values); seeking suggestions and ideas.

3. Giving: The complement of seeking behavior.

4. Clarifying and Elaborating: Interpreting ideas or suggestions; clearing up confusions; defining terms; indicating alternatives and issues before the group; expanding on ideas to keep the task work flowing.

5. Summarizing: Pulling together related ideas; restating suggestions after group discussion to reflect that discussion; offering a conclusion for group to accept or reject; checking to see what the focus of the team is and whether it is on the track.

6. Testing Decision Process: Asking to see how ready the team is to make a decision; helping group become aware of the methods it is using to make a decision; helping a team test the consequences of its decision.

7. Providing Technical Help: Doing specific jobs necessary as part of task work and providing results to team, e.g., compiling and analyzing information.

8. Recording: Keeping record of topics discussed and decisions made.

This list is suggestive rather than comprehensive. While practically all persons working with groups agree on the major distinction of maintenance and task functions, there is variation in the labels attached to these functions, the system of categorization, and definitions. Whatever classification you develop and find useful, however, the important thing is to be aware that such functions must be performed when needed if the team is to be effective.

Team Objectives

Two criteria for team effectiveness are how well members are able to detect when a particular function is needed and how well they are able to perform the needed function. A corollary is that the more each member is sensitive to these functions and the more of them each member can perform when needed, the stronger is the team. In other words, the team is weak to the extent that it has to depend on one or two persons to perform these functions. Developing skill in being sensitive to and in performing these functions is an important learning from the group experience. Most of us have become specialists in one or two functions which we perform well. Sometimes we perform the function we are familiar with even when it is inappropriate. By the same token we may be unaware of other functions needed and unable to perform them. Hence the need to develop both awareness and skill in performing additional functions.

So far we have two objectives for the task team as a group: 1.) to clarify and resolve personal issues with respect to the team, and 2.) to develop members' sensitivity and skill in performing functions necessary for the team. These objectives can be attained to the extent they are made explicit and worked on in the team; they are unlikely to be developed effectively if it is assumed they will come about naturally or as a matter of course.

Developing a Positive Climate

Thus, we come to a third objective for the team: Development of a positive group climate or culture. One indication of a positive climate is that members trust each other. In other words, I feel some certainty that others will respect my contributions, try to accept them, and build upon them rather than trying to use my contributions as a means of building their superiority by destructive criticism of my offerings, or, by ignoring my contributions, reduce me to insignificance. When such trust exists, I can own--accept responsibility for--my suggestions, actions, and behavior and feel free to be spontaneous and experimental without having to fear that inadequacies of experience, expression, and profundity will count against me. There is no teacher who is going to grade me on the "rightness" of my answers. Among members there are no "right" answers. There is acceptance of each person's attempt to help the team progress. I can trust that members are speaking their thoughts and feelings sincerely rather than playing games associated with status and authority.

Trust is not synonymous with agreement. Trust means I can depend on others to let me know their opinions honestly. When we can disagree, each can express his disagreement, and we are committed to working with our honest disagreements in a problem solving mode, then we can trust each other.

An indication of the positive level of team climate then comes from observing whether members feel free to experiment (be spontaneous), be open (express oneself and hear others and accept ways my contributions can be improved), and be aware of behavior and accept responsibility for it. Conversely, indications of negative group climate are concern with authority and status, taking care that any suggestions leave no loopholes for attack, emphasizing negative consequences of members' suggestions.

How does the team achieve a positive climate? The major part of the answer lies in the kinds of data the group deals with and the ways it deals with these data. Data relevant to the group process are:

1. Behavior of members (words, tone of voice, movements of face and body, etc.).

2. Members' reactions (perceptions, interpretations, and feelings); the challenge is to make these data available to all members in a way that the team and the individual can learn from them.

All of us pick up some parts of others' behavior (the parts we think are significant for us), interpret the ambiguous messages as best we can from our partial perception of this behavior, and have feelings about our interpretation of the message. However, the norms of our society for interpersonal behavior often work to suppress both our expression of the messages we think we have received and expression of our reaction to the messages we think we have received. Only if we can learn ways to express our internal data of perceptions, interpretations, and reactions so they become public data can these data be verified or corrected. Until relevant data are verified or corrected, we cannot achieve valid interpersonal communication. As long as the group ignores or suppresses these data, the team has a barrier to communication which is fundamental to its operation. Until relevant data can be

verified or corrected a major portion of each member's effort is spent in interpreting ambiguous signals (with a high probability of misperceiving and misinterpreting). Since most if not all of the members will be working these complex games of interpretation and suppression of feelings, the process proceeds by geometrical progression as it were until task accomplishment can be significantly reduced.

Obviously the group must be helped to establish some norms which encourage expressions or feedback of data:

1. Perception of behavior

2. Interpretation of behavior perceived

3. Reactions to behavior.

It is clear that this is a process in which several people can be involved. For purposes of illustration, however, let us imagine a situation involving only two members. In the task team there is a teacher of several years experience, Mr. Smith and another member, Novice just beginning his career. Mr. Smith's attention is divided between what the team is doing and what he should do to help Johnny, a pupil who is having difficulty. Novice suggests as part of the group's design of a specific learning module that they should visit the Science Museum. Mr. Smith frowns and replies that the last time they tried a trip like that the administrative details were hell, and he wasn't convinced that the students benefited enough to justify the trouble. Mr. Smith speaks rather sharply (call it decisive). Novice says nothing and, after a pause, someone suggests something which takes the team onto another tack.

Novice says nothing because he perceived Mr. Smith's frown, the tone of his voice, and his critical words. Novice interprets these behaviors to mean that Mr. Smith thinks Novice is challenging Mr. Smith's experience and authority; also, that Mr. Smith may think Novice inadequate to his job if he presses the matter. From these interpretations arise feelings in Novice of anger, fear (losing job), frustration (ineptness). Then Novice moves to conclusions such as that Mr. Smith is a rigid person who doesn't want to experiment. Novice will protect himself by never bringing out suggestions until he is sure of Mr. Smith's reactions, etc.

Mr. Smith, for his part, has reacted to Novice's silence by feeling disappointed that Novice didn't go on to discuss ways administrative difficulties might be overcome and how to improve the trip as a learning experience. Mr. Smith also has interpreted and drawn conclusions from Novice's silence: Novice lacks persistence and doesn't really believe in his own ideas, etc.

The point here is that if the group had norms of openness encouraging feedback, Novice would have been able to express his reactions so Mr. Smith would have become aware of Novice's perceptions, interpretations, and feelings and could have responded to them. Mr. Smith then might have said, "Look, it wasn't that way at all. I was irritated,and it showed in my voice, but the

irritation was frustration from being unable to help Johnny, the administrative red tape we ran into the last time we made a trip, and our previous lack of ways to use the trip experience constructively. My frown, which I was unaware of, was probably the result of my nearsightedness and the lighting in this room. I think your suggestion is a good idea. I tried to offer some data from past experience, but I think those handicaps can be overcome so how can we explore it further?"

It is obvious, of course, that the above illustration doesn't capture all aspects of such an interaction. Also obvious is the fact that if an effective team climate and norms of behavior had been established, Mr. Smith probably would not have responded as he did to Novice's original suggestion. One important reason is that Mr. Smith's commitment to the team and what it is doing would have prevented his distraction by other problems. He would have had a piece of the action. Mr. Smith may not consider that the program of the task team is his own program since he and other members did not develop the goals and program. Therefore, it's just a job to get through. Another part of climate, then, is personal commitment to the group and the task team's objectives. Such commitment arises in large part from participation in creating team objectives.

Another part of a positive climate is confrontation, in the spirit of continuous seeking, inquiry, and development rather than in the spirit of combat. It is a question of values, the value of effective interpersonal relations. When the team has become of value to me, and I am sensitive to processes affecting the team, then it is important to me that these processes are worked through to benefit the team. To carry out these values I am willing to confront these interpersonal processes and make them an important part of our learning experience rather than overlook them.

Achieving confrontation that leads to learning requires a problem-solving instead of a conflict approach. The problem-solving and decision-making process is discussed below in some detail. The first step in the process is acquiring valid data. The process of gathering data with respect to interpersonal relations is called feedback. Three kinds of data are involved: my perceptions of others' behavior, my interpretations of that behavior, and my feelings arising from these perceptions and interpretations. These data are known only to me. Until these data are made public to the group, members of the team may be deprived of information critically important to the team's effectiveness. There exists a two-way responsibility arising from the interpersonal values expressed by a positive group climate. The team has indicated its high valuation of interpersonal effectiveness by working to develop a climate with norms of trust, sincerity, openness, participation, and commitment. To the extent a member has accepted these values and norms and participated in the team's efforts to achieve them, he feels responsible for providing the team his data which affect achievement of these norms.

Sharing Interpersonal Data

One question is how to give feedback of interpersonal data in ways that will help learning of the team and of the individual members. How do you express subjective data objectively? Probably the most fundamental requirement is to realize that when I give feedback I am reporting data about myself.

I am reporting my perceptions, my interpretations, and my feelings. I am reporting myself as accurately and truthfully as I can. Whether my perceptions of behavior and my interpretations of those perceptions agree with others perceptions and interpretations is unknown until we share this information. That is the purpose of feedback--to provide data about myself, which team members can help me assess in terms of its public validity. Did other members perceive the same behavior as I and did they perceive behavior I overlooked?

Once we have agreed on the behavior perceived, we need data on whether other members' interpretations of the meaning of the behavior and their feelings about its interpretation differ or agree. Only when this interpersonal data of the team about specific behaviors is available to all can we assess its validity. When there is agreement in the team that we have valid data, then we can consider its consequences for the team. In what ways is certain behavior effective both for members and for the team and the team's objectives? In what ways is the behavior ineffective and in what ways can it be improved?

Carrying out this analysis of the team's group processes may seem tedious and time consuming. It does require both time and effort, particularly at first, since it contrasts markedly with cultural norms which deny the validity and relevance to task accomplishment of personal perceptions, interpretations, and feelings. However, the time and effort are the price necessary to acquire skill in achieving interpersonal values, and acquiring these values and skills is particularly relevant to team achievement, particularly operating task teams.

Given this commitment, there is a critical gain to learning in this way of operating. Since I am reporting data about myself, I am not, at least initially, reporting data about you. I am not judging, accusing, or evaluating you--my data does not attribute my reactions to you. You have, according to norms of an effective team, (along with other members), a responsibility to help me check out the accuracy of my data in terms of your perceptions of that same behavior, its meaning, and its objective. But the emphasis is on validity of data without, at first, applying normative, value judgments to an individual's behavior which lock him into defensive positions and block his openness to finding alternative behaviors. Cooperative search for valid data helps us look objectively (without defensive reactions) at the behavior observed--as patterns of action trying to achieve specific objectives--and consider, at a lower emotional charge whether alternative behaviors may be more effective. Choice is made on the basis of effectiveness, not "rightness." Also, having chosen what looks like more effective behavior, I am able, depending on the "positivity" of group climate, to try out these new patterns without fear of ridicule if I display awkwardness.

Lest this seems too pat, we must acknowledge that it is unrealistic to expect that change in behavior is easy and that such change will be large or quickly accomplished. Probably I have too much invested in present behavior patterns to change them quickly or immediately. However, the question of whether change is needed has been raised and examined in a problem-solving mode not a punitive, conflict mode. This leaves to me the decision of how

much I can change behavior as well as the timing of the decision. While I may be unable to alter immediately, I may be able to alter my behavior to some extent as time progresses. Also, my motivation to change is affected by my commitment to the team which is another function of positive climate.

Objectives of Group Processes

The objective of working with group processes in the team, therefore, is threefold:

1. To make explicit all the factual data (interpersonal and task) relevant to a situation, including internal data of perceptions, interpretations, and feelings,

2. To work with all the relevant data in a problem-solving rather than conflict mode,

3. To generate the personal commitment to the team and its objectives that motivates a realistic amount of change in ineffective behavior.

An objective of achieving a positive group climate, therefore, is to create the conditions necessary to obtain a problem-solving team attitude in which valid data can be obtained and used. Using these data effectively is the problem-solving phase. The next step is to consider more carefully the process of problem solving and decision making.

We must offer here a disclaimer and a caution. The comments above reflect the conclusions of many persons derived from experience with groups focused on interpersonal and group processes. Experience and research has confirmed the relevance of these findings to task groups. However, there is a danger of goal misplacement. Task teams differ from T-groups and sensitivity groups in that they have a task other than group development to accomplish. The task of T-groups is the exploration and learning from interpersonal relationships within the group. For task teams, such as the Teacher Corps teaching team, however, such learning from and about interpersonal relations by examining group processes within the group has much fascination and can distract the task team from its more fundamental goal.

Therefore, while we stress the importance of building effective interpersonal relationships among members of the task team, we also stress the necessity of guarding against overemphasis on interpersonal learning to the detriment of the task. A task team is a more complex structure than a T-group. A task team has the added dimension of an external task which is its reason for existence. This fact alone creates many relations to other systems from which a T-group is insulated.

Experience has shown that it is necessary to emphasize interpersonal values and processes because our culture largely ignores or underemphasizes them, and this cultural norm can block our effectiveness as a task team. The challenge to the leader and members of the team is to achieve an effective balance between working on interpersonal processes and working on the task. The criterion, vague as it has to be at this point, is that the task is the main objective, and work on interpersonal processes is done for the sake of accomplishing the task.

Problem Solving and Decision Making

Two different kinds of problems occur during the life of a team. There are problems about members' interactions, such as "How can we increase members' internal commitment to the team and its objectives?", and there are problems dealing with the external task which the team was organized to solve, such as "What are useful innovative educational methods and techniques?" In each case we work with different kinds of data. For interpersonal problems of the team we must have interpersonal data from members of the team (perceptions, interpretations, and feelings). For external problems, since we are planning something that hasn't occurred, the interpersonal data that will occur is not available, and we must work with probabilities about what we expect to occur derived from experience. Another way of saying this is that when working on interpersonal relations within the team we can work with factual data obtained directly from the people involved, but when working on tasks pertaining to some other situation, we must work with hypotheses rather than facts. In the future, when we are actively involved in the situation, immediate facts may agree or disagree in various degrees and ways with the hypothetical facts we used in planning. Whether the team is dealing with immediate facts (interpersonal relations within the team) or hypothetical facts (future situations), the general pattern of the problem solving and decision making process is similar.

The conceptual model of the problem-solving and decision-making process is fairly standard:

1. Problem identification and formulation,
2. Generating possible alternatives for solution,
3. Considering consequences of each alternative (conceptual testing),
4. Choosing (decision making) the most likely and useful alternative(s),
5. Planning action to carry out the alternative(s) chosen which includes, again, generating alternative action steps and sequence and choosing those most likely to be effective,
6. Carrying out the plan which includes receiving new, immediate data from each situation and making new decisions to accommodate these immediate data,
7. Evaluation of outcomes--comparing the plan and the action results,
8. Starting the cycle again.

Several things are evident from this model. One is that decision making is a process which occurs repeatedly throughout the problem solving process. Therefore, the process of decision making as such will be discussed separately. Another feature of the model is that Step 7, Evaluation, specifically leads us back into previous steps. Evaluation of results may show that the problem as identified and formulated needs amendment, or evaluation may confirm the

problem as identified but indicate other alternatives for solution (Step 2) which were not apparent the first time, or evaluation may disclose unforeseen consequences of the alternative(s) chosen. In other words, the problem-solving model is not a description of a straightforward, linear, mechanical progression of steps but a series of repetitions which will give us successively better approximations to attaining our objectives. Although each of these steps will be discussed separately to some extent, it should be realized that this separation and linear presentation is a conceptual device and that the process in operation is one of continual recycling among and through the steps.

Many observers agree that problem identification and formulation is one of the most difficult steps. A large part of the difficulty lies in a tendency to identify symptoms (e.g. inadequate learning) rather than the problem (the cause of inadequate learning). The problem is the cause(s) of the symptoms. To identify cause(s) requires careful diagnosis including identification of as many alternative causes (problems), which are now operating and are open to change, as possible, obtaining as much valid data as possible relevant to each cause identified and making decisions on the data about which cause(s) are the most crucial in terms of removal of the symptoms. Generating both alternative problems and the valid data relevant to each requires time and effort. The team's willingness to expend time and effort to reach valid problem identification and formulation is a measure of internal commitment of members and the team as a whole.

Part of the data that the group must recognize and manage throughout the problem solving process are external constraints, such as schedules, physical resources, and human resources within and without the team. It is particularly important to recognize these constraints in connection with the stage of problem identification and formulation because (assumed or realistic) pressures of time and resources can push the group into dealing superficially with symptoms rather than working to solve basic problems. These external constraints may be realistic. Or, to put it another way, one task of the team is to determine what the realistic constraints are and to what extent these constraints must be accepted as given, fixed boundaries or how they can be altered.

In any case, finding what should be done (identifying the problem) and doing something about the problem both use resources. We are urging only that the team recognize the importance of using resources for careful problem identification rather than feeling pressured into minimizing problem diagnosis and finding themselves dealing with symptoms. It is a problem of resource management which constantly recurs in many different forms and for which there is no formula or mechanical answer. Resource recognition and management is a critical dimension of a task team's effectiveness.

In theory the problem solving process itself will correct a tendency to settle for symptoms rather than causes by its repetitive nature leading to continuous re-examination of previous steps in the light of new data secured by succeeding steps. Practical experience, however, indicates that inadequate definition of the problem has unfortunate consequences on the problem solving process itself. For one thing, inadequate definition of the problem means more repetitions of the process when we find, at Step 7, that we have acted

on symptoms rather than problems and the problem is unaffected. Then, in theory, we must repeat the problem solving process. In practice we may not have that opportunity because of such constraints as time and funding. Also, there are the consequences of feelings of frustration and discouragement which keep us from continuing to recycle the problem solving process to reach basic problems even though resources be adequate. All these considerations underline the importance of taking the time and effort necessary to identify basic problems by identifying alternative causes of symptoms and accumulating and examining valid data which show relations between causes identified and their observable symptoms.

Generating action alternatives is another process which occurs repeatedly during problem solving and decision making. The way the action alternative process is handled may make the difference between routine and creative solutions. Routine problems are those which can and have been solved by methods already known to us. They have been solved before. The solution can be "proved" by referring to previous experience (authority). Probably most of our everyday problems are routine problems which can and should be solved by use of methods which have been successful, e.g., the wheel. Also, this means that one of our efforts is to know what has been done so we need not reinvent the wheel.

Although less frequent in everyday life, creative problems are the critical problems. Creative problems are those for which either we know what has been done to solve them in the past and we are not satisfied with the result, or we know there have been no attempts to solve them. In both cases, then, the creative problem requires a new solution.

One difficulty with creative problem solving is the fact that new creative ways of solving problems probably require new ways of behaving on our part--particularly noncritical, nonevaluative behavior. Our everyday life has locked most of us in to the process of evaluating, judging, and criticizing behavior and ideas in terms of whether they are correct, right, and practical. In some situations this is a realistic defense to avoid ridicule and being thought odd and inadequate. As a result, however, our imagination and spontaneity often have become stunted. One of the critical values to a task team of creating a positive group climate supportive of spontaneous behavior and respect for ideas--however far out--is to revitalize our creative abilities to speculate, fantasize, and free-associate without fear. In such an atmosphere we can free creative resources of the group, resources of empathy, intuition, and imagination which are the basis for generating innovative approaches for creative problem solving.

In the final analysis, ideas must be useful regardless of how novel and creative. We are not suggesting that all ideas are equally useful. Each alternative must eventually face the question of whether it will work. But the processes generating alternatives evaluating and choosing alternatives with respect to their usefulness are separate processes. Generating novel alternatives can easily be blocked by introducing the evaluative choice process too early or trying to accomplish both simultaneously.

Associated with the creative inducing potential of the team is the management of risk or uncertainty. Both risk and uncertainty are inherent in the unknown future. Risk, for us, means that we have some basis for estimating the probability that a particular choice is going to work. In order to make this estimate, I must be able to relate the idea to results of past actions. To some degree, then, this is a routine solution. In the case of uncertainty, on the other hand, I am confronted with a leap in the dark. There is nothing in my experience which gives me a basis for prediction. Risk and uncertainty have their psychological counterparts in fear and anxiety. Fear is the emotion associated with risk. It is based on assessment of objective, actual difficulties and the probability that they will occur. Anxiety is not tied to objective situations, and as a result is easily increased. Uncertainty and anxiety are more likely to be engendered by creative, innovative ideas. This is another reason for creating a climate of support and openness where such feelings can be expressed and worked through within the group.

With respect to the process of choice (decision making) itself, two aspects of group process are relevant. The first is how the team goes about making sure a bona fide team decision exists. A team decision exists only when the team feels there is an understandable contract among the members that all members share to some degree, i.e., have internal commitment to. From this viewpoint we can look at various methods used to make decisions.

Decision making methods can be classified as decision by lack of response, authority rule, minority rule, majority (voting or polling), consensus, and unanimous consent. It is important for the team to recognize these methods and be aware of the consequences of each in terms of group process, team involvement, and team action.

The lack of response procedure consists of members making suggestions one after another without discussion until finally several members clutch at a suggestion and it passes as the team's decision. There is often a feeling of desperation evinced by the team as well as the feeling of inadequacy of those individuals whose suggestions "flopped." The authority rule procedure recognizes that one person will make the decision after he has heard what he considers sufficient discussion. Although efficient, the effectiveness of authority rule depends on authority's ability to determine relevant information from the discussion. Also, this procedure produces low involvement of members which probably will affect team implementation. A minority which has agreed upon their objectives can manipulate the team by the very fact of their agreement and understanding of their objective. This strategy is often supplemented by using lack of response to indicate agreement and/or support by authority and other members.

Voting and/or polling is the most conventional and, on the surface, the most rational method for decision. Its disadvantages become apparent during implementation. Often minority members are left feeling their point of view has been misunderstood and, as a consequence, they feel resentful and frustrated--anything but committed. Also, the majority rule method emphasizes win-lose conflict with those who "lost" this issue resolved to demonstrate their influence by winning the next one. Consensus is the most

time consuming but the most effective in terms of group processes. The objective is to achieve a situation where everyone on the team feels that, even though they may not favor the majority alternative, they understand it, feel they have had sufficient opportunity to influence the decision, and are prepared to work actively to implement it. Decision by unanimous consent is an ideal. In fact, however, achieving it may be an indication of member indifference rather than involvement. Consensus is, in most cases, the more practical version of the ideal.

The above comments are oriented towards group processes. It should be noted that we are not saying that all decisions must be made by the team as a whole. There are basically four modes:

1. One person makes the decision without prior discussion and reports his decision to the team.

2. The leader discusses alternatives with the team, but he makes the decision (authority rule).

3. The team makes the decision with the leader participating as a member.

4. The team (without the leader) makes the decision.

Each of these methods of making decisions can be legitimate and effective depending on the situation including such factors as personality and style of the leader and external constraints on the decision. Each has various effects on the team which must be recognized and dealt with. The common denominator probably is that there should in all cases be openness about what we are doing and why. The leader and team should avoid being locked in to any one mode of decision making. They need to recognize factors which may make various types of decision making useful.

The second aspect of group process which is relevant to team choice (decision making) as well as to evaluation is the process of establishing goals and the levels at which these goals are set. Cultural norms tend to favor perfectionist behavior stated in absolute, ideal terms. Stating ideals as goals leads to almost certain frustration. Another goal level is the optimum. In order to define an optimum goal one must have measures of all alternatives in such form that they can be compared and must be able to say that the alternative selected is the best with respect to all of these measures. For most areas of real life, optimal goal setting requires a degree of knowledge and complex expertise that is unavailable.

A realistic goal statement tends to follow the principle of "satisficing" defined as "discovery and selection of satisfactory alternatives." It is recognized that the satisficing goal is less than the ideal or the optimum, but it is within achievement by resources available and recognized. Goals can also be stated negatively: what we will be satisfied with if it does not happen. This has a great advantage in its freeing effect. It tends to remove part of the fear of failure, possibly by recognizing it, with consequent increase in spontaneity of thought and action. In a culture with traditions

of the protestant ethic both satisficing and negative statement of goals are hard for people to accept. In the case of "satisficing" even though it appears to be the predominant and realistic method in practice of deciding on goals, there is a fear that admitting its use leads to complacency, acceptance of the status quo, and taking the easy path. While both satisficing and negative statement of goals could have these outcomes, they need not. Both satisficing and negative statement of goals make it more clear that the motivation for achievement lies in the effectiveness of interpersonal processes and commitment to team objectives rather than in pressure of goals however idealistic.

The evaluation process is closely related to statement of goals and can too often lead to feelings of failure. Some of the causes have been mentioned, e.g., ideal and optimum goal statements. An important cause of this feeling of failure arises from the habit of seeing evaluation as an absolute, final judgment of right and wrong with consequent anxiety. We either make it or else--succeed or fail. A healthier, less threatening view is to be able to see evaluation as a rediagnosis in a continuing learning experience. This allows us to assess what progress has been made and where new emphasis and/or alternatives are needed. In other words, rediagnosis allows us to continue the problem-solving, decision-making process by starting with Step 1--identification of new problems--without emotions of guilt and failure that divert a large part of our resources.

Consideration of goals and evaluation leads us to consider the larger system with which we began. Using system terminology we could say that we have discussed individuals as systems, trying to identify their needs and resulting tensions in relationship to each other. We have also discussed the task team as a system, identifying relationships and processes which affect the team's ability to operate effectively. The relationships of the team and its members to the larger system were mentioned with respect to identifying roles in the larger system and their relationships with the team.

The task team has its own entity but is related both as a team and as individual members to the larger system. The process of evaluation as much as any other team process emphasizes relationships of the task team to the larger system. Who is going to evaluate, for what purpose, and what criteria are they going to use? These are significant questions, and there is probably no one answer completely satisfactory to all parties. One piece of evidence for this is the amount of effort expended on many projects in after the fact rationalization and justification. We are not referring to sincere attempts to rediagnose in the light of new information but the need to demonstrate "progress" and "achievement" in terms of global criteria which seem to have little direct relevance to what went on.

This consideration points up the fact that one of the primary functions of the task team is to check out with the larger system the methods and criteria by which task accomplishment will be judged. This, of course, means careful assessment of the task itself so that all parties who will be evaluating accomplishment agree on what will be done as well as the relevance of criteria. Again, this negotiation and clarification process probably will not be accomplished at once and ignored thereafter. Understanding of the

task as well as statement of goals and criteria for evaluation are likely to develop and change as the work proceeds. All parties concerned with evaluation should be aware of and agree on these goals and criteria including their change and development throughout the task.

All of the above emphasizes the necessity for channels of communication and influence (links) between the teaching team and other systems. Some of these links probably exist within the team itself, such as the link of teachers in the team to the student system or teachers within the team to the administrative system. Depending upon the character and extent of changes the team's task requires, the number of other systems affected or involved, the team will have to consider what new or additional linkages are needed in order to obtain agreement, gather data, and create a climate in the larger system supportive of the change desired.

Many of the ideas presented briefly above are basic concepts shared by most students of processes in groups and task teams. Therefore, no specific sources have been credited. In the selected readings are books in which you will find these and other ideas about group processes and organizational development examined in more detail and presented in a variety of contexts.

Guidelines

In a brief and necessarily general discussion of a topic as variable and complex as group processes, hard and fast conclusions or prescriptions are presumptuous and probably not helpful. Rather, let us summarize by stating some guidelines which you can use to observe and help improve processes in task teams.

A group of persons becomes and remains an effective task team to the extent that all members understand and feel personally committed to help achieve the common objectives. Personal commitment of members is a function of the degree to which they have participated in shaping these objectives and accept them in terms of specific action responsibility.

The amount that members can contribute and share is affected by the interpersonal climate the team creates. A positive climate results from a blend of members' behaviors including:

1. Ability to recognize need for maintenance and task functions and the skills to perform these functions.

2. Willingness to work to establish norms of openness, trust, and feedback which encourage expression of personal data relevant to the team's operation.

3. Achieving a problem-solving rather than conflict mode of confronting and working with data.

The success of a team is directly related to the effort put into understanding and improving the problem solving and decision making processes the team uses. Developing and accomplishing realistic objectives depends upon recognizing resources (time, materials, people) available and needed, and devising ways to acquire these resources.

An effective team must understand its relationships to the various systems with which it interacts both through individual members and as a team. In addition to understanding these relationships among the team and its related systems, the team must be able to establish two-way channels of communication and influence with other systems which provide data and resources needed to accomplish the team's task.

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TEAM LEADERS AND PROFESSIONAL MANAGEMENT

ABSTRACT

This discussion deals with the task of the team leader functioning as a professional manager to develop and maintain a work environment which facilitates the attainment of organizational objectives. Human relations development and systematic planning are the two central activities of the team-leader manager. We suggest ways of succeeding in both of these activities.

by

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TEAM LEADERS AND PROFESSIONAL MANAGEMENT

By Jerry J. Bellon

The process of managing human or physical resources to attain certain objectives has been the subject of a large number of recent journal articles and textbooks. There seems to be a need for research which will help to improve the efficiency and the effectiveness of a large variety of organizational endeavors. Many activities and projects sponsored by, or emanating from, educational organizations can benefit from improved management practice.

It is unfortunate that too many educators think of management as consisting of mechanistic low-level activities. If you ask educational administrators how they perceive organizational management, you may get responses such as counting supplies, scheduling buses, keeping track of equipment, and other activities which are somewhat clerical in nature.

The position developed in this paper is that organizational management is the process of developing and maintaining a work environment which facilitates the attainment of organizational objectives. McGregor[1], Blake, and Mouton[2] have defined management in much the same manner.

Developing and maintaining a work environment which will facilitate the attainment of organizational objectives is a constant challenge to professional managers. There are many factors which cause this to be a difficult task. Several years of consultation with educators who manage complex organizations have convinced this writer that two basic concerns must be dealt with if educational organizations are to be productive.

A productive work environment is predicated on healthy interpersonal relationships in the organization. Therefore, human relations development must be the first goal of those who manage organizations. After positive human relations are developed, or are in the process of being improved, attention must be given to planning and carrying out those activities which are essential to the organization.

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[1]Douglas McGregor, The Professional Manager (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 13.

[2]Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid (Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1967), p. ix.

This paper is devoted to a discussion of the two central activities of the professional manager as viewed by this writer: human relations development and systematic planning. We are, obviously, making the assumption that the team leader also performs these two activities.

Human Relations Development

Very often you will hear those concerned about the effectiveness of certain organizations and their activities discuss problems associated with "poor communication." Further investigation of the problems may reveal that communication, as a matter of fact, may be very good. It is what is communicated that may be causing the anxieties and frustrations.

Those who are in leadership positions must be extremely perceptive about what they are communicating both verbally and nonverbally. In order to be perceptive about the communication process, one must develop an accurate sense of his interpersonal effectiveness in one-to-one as well as in group situations.

Improved interpersonal relations will help in the development of more productive groups within the total organization. This is a major task facing the organizational manager. According to team leaders interviewed by the directors of this Project, it was also the most difficult task for team leaders.

Self-Awareness

The development of a sharp sense of self-awareness is basic to improving human relations. An effective manager must be able to perceive his interpersonal impact on others. If he feels he is an empathetic person, but he is being "received" as insensitive, there is an interpersonal gap which must be overcome.

The Johari "window" has been developed by Luft to show how an individual is perceived by others and how he perceives himself.[3] Figure 1 depicts the Johari model.

	Known to Self	Not Known to Self
Known to Others	I Area of Free Activity	II Blind Area
Not Known to Others	III Avoided or Hidden Area	IV Area of Unknown Activity

Figure 1.
The Johari Window

[3]Joseph Luft, Group Processes (Palo Alto: The National Press, 1963), pp. 10-13.

An interpersonal gap would be present if a manager felt that which is known to others (the upper left box) was reasonably large and open while he actually was being seen as indicated in Figure 2.

	Known to Self	Not Known to Self
Known to Others	I Area of Free Activity	II Blind Area
Not Known to Others	III Avoided or Hidden Area	IV Area of Unknown Activity

Figure 2.
Limited Free Activity and Large Hidden Area

There are a number of activities which offer some promise in developing a sharper sense of self-awareness. Sensitivity training, T-grouping, and encounter groups have all been used with some success. Unfortunately, some have seen these types of training experiences as a panacea to all problems dealing with organizational change. If those in management positions decide to utilize one of these forms of human relations training, they should follow some rather simple guidelines.

First, any form of sensitivity training should be restricted to those individuals who are mentally healthy. It should not be a substitute for psycho-therapy. Second, only reputable trainers should be utilized. There are groups which have earned a decent reputation in human relations development. They are easy to identify and do understand the challenges facing those who manage some aspect of the educational enterprise. Finally, managers (directors, coordinators, team leaders) should make certain that they know what can be achieved through any of the sensitivity or encounter activities. They should not expect organizational change when, in fact, they are simply attempting to improve individual self-awareness. Incredibly, many fail to see the difference between change and awareness.

Perception of Others

Nothing will dictate the way in which management practice is developed more than the manager's view of the people in the organization. If the manager views the members of his group as disliking work, needing to be coerced and carefully directed in order to produce, a certain type of managerial behavior can be expected.

On the other hand, the manager who sees the workers as wanting self-direction and self-control and being willing to make a commitment to certain objectives will probably utilize a very different managerial style. McGregor

has contributed greatly to an analysis of managerial behavior in the development of theories X and Y, which has been the basis for the approach presented here.[4]

Another approach to self-assessment of one's own managerial style is provided by utilizing the managerial grid.[5] This is a simplified mechanism to help the manager understand his own approach or orientation to management activities.

It is helpful to know if the manager is more congruent with the theory X approach than with theory Y. It is also helpful if the manager knows where he is on the managerial grid. However, these are only indicators of his perceptions about others and do not necessarily dictate his approach to management.

If a manager's behavior is going to be seen as somewhat consistent by those in the organization, there should be a good deal of congruency between what a manager believes his style to be and the perceptions of others in the organization. An organization tends to be disfunctional when there is a significant discrepancy between actual practice and perceived practice.

Interpersonal Communication

Involvement in T-grouping or sensitivity training can help one to improve his ability to communicate. Effective communication is so important to organizational effectiveness it must be given separate attention in this paper.

Much has been said about the ability to communicate with others in organizations, large or small. It is probably true that there are instances where "lack of communication" is not the real problem. The fact may be that there is too much communication of ideas, feelings, and values. When over-communication takes place, it may cause defense mechanisms to activate which will then inhibit further communication.

In most cases, managers can improve their ability to communicate. Perhaps one of the areas needing most attention is the process of listening. Too often people are listening to others but not really "hearing" them. The successful manager must "hear" what others in the organization are saying.

Skill sessions have been developed to help train people to listen more attentively. Paraphrasing has been used in small group sessions to prevent the listener from using parallel thinking. In parallel thinking the listener is forming his answer to what he thinks he is hearing rather than attempting to really hear what is being said. Paraphrasing requires the listener to

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[4]Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960).

[5]Blake and Mouton, The Managerial Grid.

restate, clarify, or extend what he thinks he has heard before he attempts to respond with his own ideas. Other skills sessions have been used to improve listening and hearing. Nonverbal exercises are also quite powerful in developing improved listening skills. Sending messages or communicating to others requires continued attention. It is very easy to verbalize one message while sending nonverbal messages which are not congruent with the spoken messages. Skill sessions in verbal and nonverbal communication can help the "sender" to be more effective and congruent.

Effective communication in a complex organization is usually difficult to achieve. The larger the organization, the greater the probability that messages will be miscommunicated. In order to guard against faulty communication, more and more reliance has been placed on written memorandums. This has been a natural development but in many ways an unfortunate one.

One-to-one communication is the most effective way to fully communicate one's ideas, feelings, and attitudes. Unfortunately, it is not the most efficient due to the amount of time needed. However, if the manager is concerned about organizational effectiveness as opposed to efficiency, he would be well advised to use "eyeball to eyeball" communication whenever possible. This position is predicated on the belief that the manager has developed a competency in one-to-one communication. If this has not happened, he may be better off to resort to the memorandum.

Effective Groups

Much of the activity associated with organizational productivity will take place in small groups. The responsible manager should be well skilled in group processes. Earlier it was emphasized that self-awareness is important in developing good human relations. It should be obvious that the manager must have developed a fairly accurate perception of himself if he is to be effective in group activities. An understanding of the forces operating in group situations is imperative if there is to be a commitment to group involvement and decision-making.

McGregor has described in some detail groups which <u>are</u> effective and those which seem to be very ineffective. Briefly summarized, the effective group tends to have the following characteristics:

1. The group tends to be informal and relaxed.
2. There is a good deal of pertinent discussion.
3. The group understands its task.
4. Members listen to one another.
5. People will disagree.
6. Decisions are reached by informal consensus.
7. Criticism is frank and not personal.

8. There are few hidden agendas.
9. Clear assignments are made when action is taken.
10. The chairman does not dominate the group.
11. The group examines how well it is doing.

The poor groups will have some of the following characteristics:

1. The atmosphere will likely reflect difference.
2. A few dominate the discussion.
3. Objectives are not clear.
4. People do not really listen to one another.
5. Disagreements are not handled well.
6. Action is taken before real issues are resolved.
7. Decisions tend to be unclear.
8. The chairman is clearly the leader.
9. Criticism is embarrassing and tension-producing.
10. Personal feelings are hidden.
11. The group avoids any discussion of its own "maintenance."[6]

Group problem solving and decision making is the key to effective managerial operations. If the manager is able to develop teams which have the characteristics of the more effective groups given above, the organization can become more productive.

Systematic Planning

Earlier in this paper the position was taken that the effective manager must be able to plan and carry out the activities necessary for organizational productivity. Cleland and King have addressed themselves to this problem:

> In addition to helping the educational administrator in solving problems and making decisions, a formalized planning system addresses itself to the human problems of educational management in that it provides a prescribed method for bringing the many diverse educational clientele groups into the planning process.[7]

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[6]Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise, pp. 232-238.

[7]David I. Cleland and William R. King, "Cooperative Planning Concepts" (unpublished paper presented to Educational Resources Agency, Sacramento, California, March, 1970), p. 2.

Educational managers have not adopted planning techniques as rapidly as managers in business and industry. This has been due to a variety of causes, some of which may be quite valid. It is going to be more and more important for educators to utilize or develop planning systems which will facilitate organizational problem identification and problem resolution.

The most effective planning system for those managing some aspect of the educational enterprise should be relatively easy to understand and use for educational problem solving. Just as educators have been accused of clouding many issues with their pedagogy, so have engineers and planners obscured with their terminology the processes which are essential to effective planning.

Rather than attempt to describe managerial competencies needed for effective organizational planning, a planning system will be described which has been successfully operationalized. Even though it may be obvious which kinds of competencies are needed as the system is described, the specific skills necessary have been enumerated in the summary. The planning system presented on the following pages is based on accepted project management techniques. Every attempt has been made to keep the language free of occult terminology. The system has been used with small school districts, large school districts, colleges, county and state agencies, and quite recently the National Teacher Corps.

It should be emphasized that this system can serve the manager only if he has developed skills in communication and group processes. The most successful use of this type of planning system has been by those who tend to have theory Y attitudes about the people in the organization. Another assumption which we make at this point is that Teacher Corps team leaders given a choice, will select theory Y over theory X.

Problem Identification

It may seem simplistic to ask that before resources are used to solve problems, the problems should be clearly identified. Those who have been involved in the management of educational activities during the past decade have probably had some experience with solutions--procedures--which purport to solve <u>any</u> educational problem.

Solutions Follow Problems

When team teaching became popular, many schools decided to solve their problems with large group team instruction and the use of small tutorial or discussion groups. On many occasions this writer asked <u>why</u> school administrators were turning to team teaching and too often the response was "because we don't have team teaching." The same can be said about flexible scheduling, the use of certain instructional packages, and other practices considered to be innovative.

There is no denying that new educational practices have been developed which can help to solve certain instructional problems. The fact remains that solutions have been adopted before the problems have been identified. In other words, we have confused the "means" with the "ends."

There are many ways to identify organizational problems. Formal surveys, interviews, and questionnaires may be used to gather data about the major problems facing the organization. Informal procedures such as discussions held with a variety of members of the organization can also be productive.

Brainstorming

One group process which has been used with success to identify problems has been "brainstorming." The rules for brainstorming are quite simple. They can be summarized as follows:

1. Keep the group relatively small--no more than twelve.

2. Generate as many ideas as possible in a specified amount of time. (One group of eight observed by the writer generated more than sixty ideas in four minutes.)

3. Do not allow any value judgments about any of the ideas. Every idea is acceptable. If necessary, appoint someone to enforce this rule.

4. Encourage free-wheeling and wild ideas.

5. Build on the ideas made by others.

6. Record the ideas where they can be seen by all. A chalkboard is acceptable but not as good as butcher paper. If you use felt pens and butcher paper, you have retrievable data. (Some say you shouldn't write as it slows things down. If you want to build on the ideas, you have to record them.)

7. Give the group plenty of time to synthesize all of the ideas into major points.

By using the brainstorming technique, it is possible to get some agreement about the major problems needing resolution. Certainly the formal techniques for data gathering can give additional information which can be most useful in identifying those problems which need attention.

Mission Development

Once a group or project team has some agreement about the problems needing resolution, a project can be developed to resolve each problem. In order to give a project direction, it is necessary to develop a statement of purpose or a mission statement. This statement of ultimate purpose may be as broad as "to develop an individualized system of instruction for a school district." It could be as specific as "to organize a one-day in-service program for district administrators." It is likely that team leaders will find specific statements more suited to their needs.

In the examples given above the mission statements would be developed after problems relating to instruction or administrative in-service have been identified. The mission statements would be agreed upon activities to solve the problems.

Timing is important in the resolution of any organizational problem. A mission statement should have a starting date and an expected completion or target date. Very often the target date is simply a rough estimate on a date of completion. This can be done by the project members--the team--coming to a general agreement as to the greatest amount of time possibly needed, as well as the shortest length of time in which the project could be completed. A good estimate would be a mid-point between the two dates.

A Mission Analysis Guide, as presented in Figure 3 is used to record the mission statement, target dates, and the major activities described in the following material.

Mission Statement: Start Date: _____
Target Date: _____

Major Activities:	Target Date	Activity Supervisor
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

Completion Date: _____
(Date) (Signature)

Figure 3.
Mission Analysis Guide

Activities Delineated

Once the mission has been identified and the start and target dates determined, the project team is in a position to identify the major activities necessary to fulfill the mission. The "brainstorming" technique described earlier may be useful in first attempting to identify all possible activities necessary for consideration. A session devoted to synthesizing all of the ideas into the major activities would be the second process for the "brainstorming" group. Finally, the agreed upon activities would be entered on the Mission Analysis Guide along with estimated target dates for each activity.

Responsibility Assignment

After the major activities have been delineated, it is necessary to show the extent and type of authority exercised by all personnel involved in the project. A mechanical aid which has been found to be very useful in showing authority and responsibility relationships is the Linear Responsibility Chart. One type of Linear Responsibility Chart is represented in Figure 4. Team leaders should be able to make the changes in the code needed to adapt the chart to their situations.

Mission Statement:

Activities:	Key Personnel or Resource Groups							
1.								
2.								
3.								
4.								
5.								

Code:

1 - Supervise Activity (Administers the activity)
2 - Actual Responsibility (Does the work)
3 - Approval Required
4 - Must be Consulted
5 - May be Consulted
6 - Must be Notified
7 - May be Notified
8 - Other

Adapted from: Cleland, David I., and W. R. King. Systems Analysis and Project Management, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1968, Chapter 8.

Figure 4.
Linear Responsibility Chart

All project personnel members or groups are identified and written in across the top of the chart. The major activities from the Mission Analysis Guide are listed on the left side of the chart. A code is developed and numbered which represents the type of authority to be exercised for each activity. Representatives of all the groups or individuals listed should be present to complete the matrix. Numbers should be assigned to each box, except where it is appropriate to leave the box empty. It should be emphasized that the assignment of authority and responsibility should be a group activity. The process of creating the chart is probably more important than the finished product!

Activities, Tasks, and Events

After the responsibility for each major activity has been determined, the proper assignment is noted on the Mission Analysis Guide. From this point on, it is simply a matter of breaking the activities down into manageable tasks. Very often the tasks will need to be further delineated into specific events. Worksheets for activities, tasks, and events are presented in Figures 5 and 6.

Monitoring the Project

In order for the project manager and workers to keep up-to-date about the progress, a visual representation can be quite helpful. A Mission Schedule as shown in Figure 7 can be used which includes all of the major activities and tasks with agreed upon target dates. Bar graph techniques can be used to show the progress being made on each activity. This helps to provide a graphic representation which will assist in monitoring the project.

Activity Description: Start Date: _____

Target Date: _____

Responsibility:

Supervise _____

Actual _____

Consult _____

Notify _____

Major Tasks	Target Date	Actual Responsibility
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

Resources Needed:

Figure 5.
Activity Planning Sheet

Task Description: Start Date: _____

Target Date: _____

Responsibility:

Supervise _____

Actual _____

Events	Target Date	Actual Responsibility
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

Resources Needed:

Figure 6.
Task Worksheet

Mission: Target Date: _____

Activity Description	September 7 14 21 28	October 5 12 19 26	November 2 9 16 23 30	December 7 14 21 28	January 4 11 18 25
A_1					
t_1					
t_2					
t_3					
t_4					
A_2					
t_1					
t_2					

Figure 7.
Mission Schedule

The essential elements of this planning system have been briefly described. The competencies necessary to utilize this system, as well as other systems, are discussed in the summary.

Summary

Those who manage some aspect of educational organization are challenged to develop a work environment which will maximize organizationl goal attainment. To create such an environment requires an ongoing program for improving and maintaining good human relations. Such a program requires the manager--team leader--to have the following competencies and/or abilities:

1. Perception of self which is congruent with the perceptions of those with whom he works.

2. A view of others in the organization which is compatible with his managerial style.

3. Communication skills which help him to receive messages accurately and communicate clearly with others.

4. Utilize group processes which promote more effective decision-making.

The effective manager--team leader--must go beyond the development of a productive work environment. He must be able to plan and execute those activities which are important to the organization. Competencies necessary for systematic planning and implementation of programs would be:

1. Ability to delineate those techniques from systems analysis and project management which are necessary for educational planning.

2. Utilize group processes, such as brainstorming, to identify major problems needing resolution.

3. Develop precise mission statements which will lead to problem resolution.

4. Help identify those events, tasks, and activities necessary to complete a mission.

5. Establish target dates which are reasonably accurate and will lead to mission completion within the time available.

6. Assign responsibilities to the most appropriate members of the organization.

7. Develop total time schedules which can be easily monitored.

No one would expect the educational manager to have the competencies listed above without adequate training and preparation.

Suggested Program Training

Some form of human relations training should be provided for those expected to manage educational programs and organizations. Such a program should focus on improving communication skills. In addition, skills in group processes and group dynamics should be included. It is not necessary to spend a long concentrated time in such a program. Short sessions which are task or goal oriented may be sufficient. A series of follow-up sessions spread over a longer period of time can be most helpful.

Planning skills enumerated in this paper are based on an understanding of group processes. Therefore, sessions devoted to planning techniques should follow human relations training. A short (two or three day) beginning session with periodic follow-up sessions can be most helpful in developing skills and techniques necessary are systematic planning. This provides for necessary feedback and adjustment in the system.

There are no easy solutions to managing a complex organization. Many skills and competencies are necessary to develop an environment which facilitates the members of the organization in their work. Time given to improving human relations and systematic planning will prove to be well worth the investment.

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TEAM LEADERS AND COMPETENCY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION

ABSTRACT

In this paper we define some concepts of competency-based teacher education and suggest appropriate roles for team leaders. It is maintained that a competency-based approach requires the involvement of team leaders or persons like team leaders in the cooperating schools.

by

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TEAM LEADERS AND COMPETENCY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION

By Wilford A. Weber

The purpose of this paper is threefold: (1) to define the term competency-based teacher education, to describe its characteristics and implications, and to compare it with traditional approaches, (2) to define the term instructional module, to describe its characteristics and implications, and to suggest its advantages, and (3) to briefly describe the various roles a team leader might play in a competency-based teacher education program.

Competency-Based Teacher Education

This, the first section of the paper, deals with the issue of competency-based teacher education. A definition of the term is presented and explained in some detail. This is followed by a discussion of those features which characterize a competency-based teacher education program. Finally, this section contrasts competency-based teacher education with traditional teacher education approaches.

Definition

The following is a definition of competency-based teacher education presented elsewhere (Weber, 1970; Cooper and Weber, 1970; and Arends, Masla, and Weber, 1971); it is a definition which is gaining widespread usage:

> "A competency-based teacher education program is a program in which the competencies to be demonstrated by the student and the criteria to be applied in assessing the competency of the student are made explicit, and the student is held accountable for meeting those criteria."

This definition suggests the need for the further defining of three terms: (1) competencies, (2) criteria, and (3) accountable. Simply put, the competencies referred to are those attitudes, understandings, skills, and behaviors which a teacher would use to facilitate intellectual, social, emotional, and physical growth in children. Thus, competencies are seen as requisite to teaching effectiveness, and, consequently, program graduates are expected to be able to demonstrate those competencies specified.

In determining the degree to which students are able to demonstrate competence, three types of criteria are used: (1) knowledge criteria which are used to assess the cognitive understanding of the student, (2) performance criteria which are used to assess the teaching behaviors of the student, and (3) product criteria which are used to assess the student's ability to teach by examining the achievement of pupils taught by the student.

Accountability as used here suggests that the student is held responsible to demonstrate the competencies specified. It is important to note that the student is required to demonstrate that he has mastered the requisite competencies, but is not required to engage in specific instructional activities in order to achieve those competencies. That is, the student is held accountable for ends, not means.

Characteristics and Implications

While there are numerous features which characterize competency-based teacher education programs, only four of the most prominent are dealt with here: (1) the emphasis on clearly specified objectives, (2) the utilizational modules, (3) the high priority put on the personalization of instruction, and (4) the emphasis given a field-centered approach.

As suggested earlier, basic to competency-based programs are the competencies the program is intended to help students achieve and demonstrate. The competencies are made specific through the use of objectives of two types:

1. Instructional objectives which specify attitudes, skills, understandings, and behaviors to be demonstrated by the student--very often these take the form of behavioral objectives, and

2. Expressive objectives which specify events to be experienced by the student without any prescription or prediction of possible outcomes.

Objectives serve two most important functions:

1. They provide a focus for instruction and evaluation on the part of program designers and instructional staff, and

2. They make program expectations clear to the student thus permitting him to plan his experience more adequately.

At the heart of the competency-based program is the instructional module. Since more comprehensive attention is given to issues relating to the instructional module in the second major section of this chapter, it suffices here to define the term. An instructional module is a set of learning activities intended to facilitate the student's achievement of a specific objective or objectives.

Competency-based teacher education programs place high priority on the personalization of instruction. This requires the utilization of instructional modules to facilitate self-pacing and to encourage alternative routes of instruction. Competency-based programs are largely self-paced. Since the

emphasis is on ends and not means, the student is free to sequence his program according to his needs and wants. In addition, this emphasis encourages the student to select from the alternatives available those learning activities which he feels will best facilitate his achievements of the objectives. Personalization is also enhanced by the utilization of technology, opportunities for independent study and small group work, and provisions for the development of instructor-student rapport through closer and more frequent contact in a wide range of formal and informal settings. In short, then, the competency-based program offers the student opportunities to plan his own program, indeed, to act responsibly.

A field-centered approach is a prime characteristic of a competency-based program. Since a competency-based program places great emphasis on the demonstration of performance and product-oriented competencies and criteria, students spend a greater portion of time in the schools in interaction with children. It is the school classroom setting in which instruction relevant to many competencies can best take place. Clearly, the classroom and pupils provide the most adequate setting in which to test the teacher's ability to teach and to bring about the growth of children. Parenthetically, it is perhaps appropriate here to note that the field-centered approach suggests that programs be multi-institutional in nature and that staff patterns be differentiated. That is, that responsibilities for teacher education be shared by colleges and public schools--as well as other institutions and organizations with estimable interest in teacher education and the education of children. Further, it means that instructional personnel patterns include public school educators as well as college professors.

Comparisons

Comments made to this point have already suggested some ways in which competency-based programs differ from traditional approaches. While the differences are quite numerous, only four are examined here. Competency-based programs:

1. Utilize instructional modules rather than courses.
2. Emphasize achievement rather than time.
3. Place priority on exit requirements rather than entrance requirements.
4. Stress performance and product competencies rather than knowledge competencies.

Modules Replace Courses

As noted earlier, the instructional program of a competency-based teacher education program consists of instructional modules rather than a series of courses. Instructional modules foster greater program flexibility, provide more opportunities for self-pacing, and promote a greater range of alternative routes than do courses. A more detailed examination of these advantages is offered in the next section. At this point it is perhaps sufficient to assert that a program structure which consists of smaller units provides greater

opportunity for flexibility while at the same time avoiding the gaps and overlaps caused by ill fitting course structures. It would seem that it provides great advantage in that it eliminates the necessity of dealing with content in neat two or three credit hour "packages."

Achievement Rather Than Time

In a traditional program, time is held constant while achievement varies. That is, the emphasis is on the completion of a certain number of courses regardless of whether the student requires mastery in all areas of study. On the other hand, in a competency-based program, achievement is held constant and time varies. The competencies to be demonstrated are specified and the student achieves those competencies at his own rate of progress. He moves as quickly as he wishes and is able. Competency-based approaches take the position that it is far more important that program graduates have demonstrated competence as compared to merely having served time.

Exit Requirements Emphasized

Traditional programs place heavy emphasis on entrance requirements. Competency-based programs put greatest emphasis not on entrance requirements but on exit requirements. Simple logic suggests that it is much more germane to examine an individual's abilities after completion of a program rather than before he has even entered it. Competency-based education assumes the obvious wisdom of this observation. An additional dividend of the competency-based approach is that the emphasis on exit requirements opens the doors of teacher education to able individuals who might otherwise be excluded. Another dividend is that a reliance on exit requirements requires all program graduates to demonstrate mastery of all competencies.

Performance Emphasized

Traditional programs give greatest weight to the student's knowledge--what the student knows. Multiple-choice questions and essay tests bear witness to this. As noted earlier, however, competency-based programs are moving toward a stronger emphasis on performance and product--performance and product objectives and criteria. Clearly a personal storehouse of information does not by itself make an effective teacher. What is most meaningful, according to both competency-based programs and simple logic, is the teacher's ability to facilitate the learning of children.

T[illegible]uctional Modules

In this section we dis[illegible] instructional modules. A definition is provided, central characteristics are described, and some advantages are suggested.

Definition

As defined earlier, an instructional module is a set of learning activities intended to facilitate the student's achievement of an objective or set of objectives. Further explanation of this definition is presented in the discussion of characteristics which follows immediately.

Characteristics

The instructional module consists of the following elements: an objective or set of objectives, a description of prerequisites, pre-assessment procedures, instructional activities, post-assessment, and remediation.

Objective

As suggested earlier, an instructional objective specifies a competency to be demonstrated by the student while an expressive objective specifies an event he will experience. Instructional objectives generally reflect three kinds of considerations: type, condition, and criteria. Type refers to the competency the student is expected to demonstrate, condition refers to the condition under which the student is expected to demonstrate the specified competency, and criteria refers to the criteria to be applied in assessing the student's mastery relevant to the objective.

Prerequisites

Prerequisites fall into two major categories: general background competencies needed to start a module, and specific competencies which were to have been acquired in a preceding module. In general, a good rule of thumb is that program designers hold required prerequisites to an absolute minimum thus facilitating the greatest possible flexibility. In addition, pre-assessment procedures are designed to disclose necessary prerequisites.

Pre-Assessment Procedures

Pre-assessment involves measurement which is used to determine the following:

1. Can the student demonstrate mastery of the competencies prerequisite to the instructional activities which follow or must he develop prerequisite competencies to reach the necessary entry level?

2. Can the student already demonstrate mastery of the specified competency, or does he need to engage in instructional activities relevant to the objective or objectives?

3. Can the student already demonstrate certain aspects of the specified competency and, therefore, needs to engage in instuctional activities relevant to only those aspects in which he has not demonstrated mastery?

The term, pre-assessment, usually evokes visions of papr-and-pencil tests of a standardized variety. However, programs also note the usefulness of other measures--formal and informal, direct and indirect, objective and perhaps a bit less objective. Faculty-student discussions and the observations of third parties are viewed as attractive possibilities in certain instances.

Instructional Activities

Instructional activities are the tasks made available to the student to facilitate mastery of the objective or objectives. It is not the purpose here to describe the vast number of possible activities and materials which might serve those functions. However, a few very general comments are appropriate although these should be seen as reflections of the biases of the author:

1. Insofar as possible, instructional activities should provide for student self-pacing.

2. Whenever possible, instructional activities should be personalized in that they should reflect the particular needs, capabilities, attitudes, aptitudes, and learning style of the student.

3. While activities can be very specific and narrow in scope, it is perhaps best--though not easiest--to provide students with the opportunity to select from many possible alternatives.

4. Activities should include equivalent practice; that is, an activity equated with the specified outcome.

Post-Assessment Procedures

Post-assessment procedures may vary as greatly in format as do pre-assessment procedures. They are essentially measuring processes which are used to determine the following:

1. Can the student now demonstrate the competencies relevant to the specified objective or is it necessary for him to engage in remediation activities--a recycling through instructional activities similar to those he has already experienced or a set of learning activities which represent a different approach?

2. If the student is not able to demonstrate competence, to what can this be attributed?

Possible explanations of lack of ability to demonstrate competence are: lack of student ability, motivation, and/or effort; inappropriate or ineffective instruction; unrealistic expectations as reflected in the objective or objectives.

Remediation

Remedial activities are instructional activities intended to assist the student who has failed to demonstrate mastery of a particular competency as indicated through post-assessment procedures. As indicated above, remedial activities may be "more of the same" or may represent a different task. In all cases, it is the intent of remediation to be helpful and not punitive and, indeed, to give the student every opportunity to be successful.

Advantages

The module approach enhances possibilities for self-pacing, independent study, individualization, personalization, and alternative means of instruction. This is made possible by several factors:

1. Modules vary greatly in length--some are brief while others are quite lengthy.

2. Instructional activities are carried on in diverse settings.

3. Students can demonstrate competency and "opt out" of some or all instructional activities.

4. Students can work at different rates.

5. The emphasis is on demonstrated competence not an established set of instructional processes.

In addition, the modular approach encourages an interdisciplinary approach as related objectives are grouped in a single module without attention to discipline. It is also worthy to note that the modules are much more easily added, deleted, or modified than are courses. This has the effect of promoting program regeneration--keeping the program updated. Just as there are alternative routes of instruction within modules, alternative routes through the program are made possible by the module approach. That is, the student can build his own program by selecting from the modules available and sequencing them in a pattern fitting his particular needs and abilities. Thus, the flexibility of the module approach appears an attractive alternative to traditional "lock step" curricula.

Team Leader Roles

In this section we briefly examine several of the roles a team leader might play in a competency-based teacher education program. Specifically, five roles are described here--the team leader is viewed as one who might:

1. Specify objectives.

2. Design instructional modules.

3. Instruct interns.

4. Evaluate intern progress and program effectiveness.

5. Counsel interns.

Specification of Objectives

As noted earlier, objectives are the foundation stones of the competency-based program. Clearly, the specification of objectives is a crucial task. Many objectives are generated from a theoretical and empirical base while

other objectives are specified by those in the field who interact daily with pupils in instructional settings. It makes sense to have team leaders--experienced, competent teachers--assist in specifying the competencies which program graduates ought to be able to demonstrate. The firsthand experiences of the team leaders help to make objectives reality-oriented. Few are more aware of the attitudes, skills, understandings, and behaviors required of an effective teacher than are experienced teachers. It is argued here that in the specification of objectives, team leaders can and should play a major role.

Designing Instructional Modules

From the preceding discussion, it follows that the team leader's role might include the designing of instructional modules. The team leader could be quite helpful in designing instructional activities relevant to particular objectives. Again, the daily experience of the team leader could contribute to making learning situations reality-oriented, evaluation criteria realistic, and the nature of student-pupil interaction most meaningful. In short, we suggest that those groups charged with the responsibility to design instructional modules should include experienced teachers. Team leaders are in a good position to play that role.

Instructing Interns

As described earlier, competency-based programs are field-centered with the student spending a great deal more time in school classrooms in interaction with the children. Thus, it is reasonable to suggest that much of that instruction in the field might rest with the team leader. That the team leader, one working very closely with the intern, should have major instructional responsibilities seems clear. Opportunities to see appropriate behaviors modeled, to have problem areas diagnosed, to receive immediately applicable instruction, and to be given immediately useful feedback on a regular and frequent basis are afforded the intern by the team leader who plays an instructional role.

Evaluating Intern Progress

From this, it follows that the team leader is also in a good--if not the best--position to monitor the progress of the student and, subsequently, the effectiveness of the program. A program which places greates emphasis on the demonstration of performance and product competencies requres that much evaluation take place in school settings. In many cases, th extensive contact between team leader and intern makes the team leader the person best able to perform this task. Furthermore, the team leader is on hand to provide instruction based on diagnosed weaknesses. Thus, evaluation procdures become more formative than summative and more constructive than punitive

Counseling Interns

The final role examined here is that of counselor. The teamleader's availability makes him an ideal candidate for a counseling role. His frequent contacts with the intern allow him to "know" the intern as no othr program staff person. Competency-based programs put a great deal more reponsibility

on the student than do traditional programs. The student makes decisions regarding the sequence of his instructional program and selects from alternatives available. The team leader might be a person who knows the intern and the program well enough to provide meaningful advice. Thus, the team leader is well suited to play a counseling role.

The discussion of the roles the team leaders might play in a competency-based program has dealt only briefly with several of the more important roles. However, it should be clear from even so cursory an examination that the team leader is crucial to the success of a competency-based teacher education program.

Summary

This paper has dealt with issues surrounding the notion of competency-based teacher education. The term has been defined, characteristics and implications have been described, and comparisons with traditional programs have been presented. An examination of instructional modules, their characteristics and their advantages has been made. Finally, a brief description of several of the roles a team leader might play in a competency-based program was offered. It must be made clear that this discussion has only begun to deal with these issues and surely should not be considered an exhaustive treatment of the topics. Therefore, the reader who wishes to pursue this further is encouraged to delve into any or all of the references listed below.

In the spirit of a competency-based approach we suggest that readers assess their own mastery of the following objectives:

1. The reader will be able to define the term, "competency-based teacher education."

2. The reader will be able to describe the major characteristics and implications of a competency-based teacher education.

3. The reader will be able to compare competency-based teacher education programs with traditional programs.

4. The reader will be able to define the term "instructional module."

5. The reader will be able to describe the major elements of an instructional module.

6. The reader will be able to describe the major advantages of instructional modules as compared to courses.

7. The reader will be able to describe five roles the team leader could play in a competency-based teacher education program.

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TWO ROLES OF THE TEAM LEADER: TEACHING CHILDREN AND TEACHING TEACHERS

ABSTRACT

In this paper we maintain that there is a logical and a necessary relationship between the roles of the team leader as a teacher of teachers and as a teacher of pupils. Ten recommendations to suggest how to integrate these two roles are offered and explained in detail.

by

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TWO ROLES OF THE TEAM LEADER: TEACHING CHILDREN AND TEACHING TEACHERS

By Kenneth R. Howey

Introduction: An Expanded Role

"Who do they think I am--Superman?" You can be sure this overheard query exemplifies the feelings of more than just the Teacher Corps team leader who made it. Indeed, the responsibilities of the team leader are as difficult as they are manifold. Team leaders are not only expected to assume the primary role in teaching interns to teach, but also to assume the primary role in organizing these interns into an instructional team. While this dual instructional responsibility is difficult, it can also be an excellent synthesis. The response suggested to that team leader's query is: "Why not strive towards a role that is super?" The challenging and exciting role of team leader implies, in fact demands, some super qualities.

To understand why this dual team leader role is both viable and crucial, one has only to reflect briefly on the basic problems of teacher education and teaching. Teacher education programs, in general, have a lack of articulation between precepts--what the future teacher is told--and practice--what he actually does. Too often application of the knowledge base acquired in courses is delayed for lengthy periods of time if, in fact, it is ever operationalized by the student teacher. Too often the person "supervising" the student teacher is unfamiliar with or even in disagreement with the earlier training provided that student teacher. This unrealistic situation where a student teacher is expected to incorporate all the information of several courses into a capstone experience under the supervision of people unfamiliar with those courses is not uncommon. How can the student teacher or, in the case of Teacher Corps, the intern, guided by quality supervision, have continuing opportunities to translate knowledge effectively into practice? This is the basic problem to which we must address ourselves in teacher education.

The basic problem of teaching in the public school classroom is analogous. For too long our "teaching" model has concentrated upon information transmission interspersed with activities for evaluating how well learners recall that information. In the classroom we deal with several organized bodies of knowledge such as the physical, natural, and social sciences. We are responsible for defined sets of skills in reading, writing, spelling, and computing. We are responsible for more general skills such as thinking, decision making, and locating information. We are responsible for clarifying and refining attitudes and values. We are asked not only to individualize, but also to

personalize instruction for twenty-five to thirty-five unique bundles of energy. The obvious problem in "teaching" is how can one "teacher" effectively be all things to all learners? How can he involve all children in learning activities which meet their needs and at the same time contribute to their dignity and self respect? This is the basic problem of public school education.

The Teacher Corps Design

The National Teacher Corps program is directly confronting both the problem of effectively teaching teachers and teaching in the classroom. The team leader is crucial to the success of both of these endeavors.

Teacher Corps, with respect to the central problem in teacher education, perceives the team leader as the needed liaison between the campus and the classroom. The team leader is the key in enabling the intern to translate knowledge into performance (teaching) into product (learning for the classroom student). The team leader designs and coordinates opportunities for the intern to practice what he has just learned at an abstract level and provides constant feedback to the college instructor in terms of the pacing and direction he might take. The team leader can personalize learning activities for each intern as a result of his involvement in the intern's coursework.

Teacher Corps, with respect to the problem of the multifaceted demands on the individual classroom teacher, is generating cooperative or team approaches in order to meet those demands. A variety of organizational designs and staffing patterns are being tested. Hopefully, these blendings of different teacher talents and energies will provide more meaningful options for learners. Once again the key person is the team leader. The degree to which the team leader can coordinate and organize the interns and experienced teachers in creative and productive instructional formats will, to a large extent, determine the degree of learning possible for the children.

The power and uniqueness of the Teacher Corps team leader role is that teaching and teacher education are meshed together and synchronized within the same system. Saxe[1] refers to such a system, for lack of a more graphic term, as "The Complete School System." If teaching is to be truly creative and invigorating, it must also be a learning process--a process of discovery and experimentation. From this perspective, "learning to teach" and "teaching" does not seem a difficult dual process but a logical and desirable interface. The capabilities and energies of the team leader will again determine the degree to which that interface can be accomplished.

The remainder of this paper devotes itself to a discussion of some of the skills and qualities necessary for a team leader to successfully integrate teacher education and teaching. Attention will first be directed to how a

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[1]Richard W. Saxe, "A Systems Approach to Designing a Training Program for Team Leaders." (Unpublished manuscript. Toledo: Team Leadership Development Project.)

climate for productive interaction with the interns can be established. Consideration will then be given to organizing interns in ways which ensure productive instructional activities for learners.

Recommendation 1:

Teacher Corps team leaders should be enrolled as teacher-learners in the courses which the interns take. They should also buttress these courses in the following ways:

a. They should demonstrate teaching concepts themselves;
b. They should design related laboratory or micro-teaching settings as well as clinical teaching experiences for the interns;
c. They should meet periodically with the college instructors for the purpose of planning the course and evaluating the interns. Emphasis should be on generating linkage between different courses as well as between the courses and actual practice teaching.

Recommendation 2:

Teacher Corps team leaders should receive training in designing multiple staffing patterns. They should receive practice in deploying team members not only by curricular strength, but also by the instructional competence. Emphasis should be on generating new teaching roles.

Preparing To Teach Interns

The position assumed here is that the team leader role in teacher education is that of a critical liaison. That the team leader can assume a central role in the better explication of desired performance qualities for interns and the design of activities for practicing and refining those qualities seems obvious. The specific ways in which he does this will not be delineated here, but attention will be given to establishing the climate necessary to assume that role.

From the outset, the team leader assumes a different role than the interns. His role, his rules, his expectations, and certainly his competency will be the subject of careful scrutiny by interns. The interns will expect direction and at the same time reject it. This behavior, while frustrating, is not an atypical attitude adopted towards any authority figure and can be dealt with. In this case, the team leader is responsible for providing direction to a small group that is, by design, extremely task-oriented. The interns will be somewhat uncomfortable in that while they must contribute to the task, they are also learning the task. A design which allows one to learn as you go can be most exciting; it also can and does produce varying degrees of anxiety for the novice. It is suggested that a thorough discussion and analysis of expectations and of ground rules for decision making are appropriate beginning points for dealing effectively with this anxiety.

Dealing with Expectations

The crucial factor in dealing with an expectation is making clear its ramifications and implications for everyone on the team. One expectation will be selected for the purposes of illustration. A team leader responsible for an instructional team comprised primarily of interns could have the following goal or expectation: the open exchange of feelings and ideas, especially criticism.

One method which helps to understand this expectation is the force field technique. The team lists forces which could either facilitate or work against the goal or expectation with the purpose of better understanding the expectation itself. In Figure 1 an example of how the expectation of an exchange of ideas could be dealt with is presented.

Figure 1

OPEN EXCHANGE OF FEELINGS AND IDEAS

Forces Facilitating	Forces Blocking
interns have lots of ideas →	← interns afraid of consequences of "criticism"
team leaders have lots of ideas →	← interns used to being on the receiving end of ideas from adults
both team leaders/interns want new ideas →	← interns not used to sharing with adults
team leader sees himself as still a learner →	← other teachers in building not sold on team idea
school principal wants innovation in school →	← neither interns/team leader have really been subject to criticism in past
interns, team leader are in new situation which demands new ideas →	← interns unsure of ideas about teaching
	← team leader not sure how well constructive criticism will affect relationship with interns

While the listing of forces may appear relatively simple, a good deal of soul searching is required in a thorough and honest analysis of what this expectation really involves. After the initial listing is drawn up, the various forces can be ranked in order of how important they would be in either

contributing towards meeting or detracting from the stated expectation. Likewise, forces can be rated as to how sure people are that they are accurate, and attention can be given as to how easy or how difficult it would be to modify or eliminate a force.

How does this technique clarify expectations? The force field chart can be referred to periodically throughout the year. New forces for or against can be added or deleted. The importance or the accuracy of the forces can be continually reviewed. Forces might be seen in a new light and new perceptions shared among team members. The principle being encouraged here is that making expectations clear is crucial, yet merely writing them down or sharing them among the team is not enough. A thorough examination of basic expectations and the implications of those expectations for all involved is what is needed. The force field technique briefly noted here or a similar analytic process can be extremely helpful in initiating and, more importantly, maintaining open communication on a team. Well defined clarification techniques facilitate the honest interchange that leads to the trust and openness necessary for a team to operate effectively.

Recommendation 3:

> Team leaders should have practice in stating explicit goals or expectations and in analyzing the implications and ramifications of those expectations. Time during the orientation phase of the program should be given to engaging in such analyses between team leaders and interns. Periodic re-examination of expectations by methods such as the force field should be engaged in throughout the Teacher Corps program cycle.

The Individual as Innovator

The systematic analysis of expectations should contribute to a positive working relationship between team leaders and interns. How the role of the intern with respect to change or innovation is communicated is crucial enough to warrant specific attention here. The intern's expectation of his role as a change agent is often misunderstood.

The team leader will be working with interns who have a strong desire to improve the existing educational structure. Many interns are attracted to Teacher Corps because it is designed to create and facilitate change. The interns will be quick to note the many inadequacies within our process of schooling. The need for improvement is obvious to anyone who has spent time in the schools. How change can best be effected is dealt with by my colleague, Charles Jung. A perspective for the expectation of change is discussed here. The dilemma with which the team leader must contend is creating and nourishing concern for change in interns without leading them to destructive conflict and despair. Far too often the flames of idealism and action are reduced to the ashes of better rhetoric.

Individual Teacher Corps programs will have a number of objectives regarding change. Innovation is needed in both the teacher training institutions and the public schools. Each program will have a number of positions

specified: director, assistant director, professors, coordinators, team leaders, and consultants of various types as well as interns. Efforts in new staffing patterns for schools or reorganizing college programs necessitate the coordinated efforts of all of these people.

Too often the intern inaccurately perceives himself as the primary agent in what is fairly substantial programmatic or institutional change. The coordination needed for this type of change should be made clear to the intern. That his newness and fresh perspective may have little effect on the veteran educator, hidebound by years of experience, should be made clear. This is not to communicate to the intern that he cannot have considerable influence. The record shows that in many cases interns have initiated considerable changes. Intern energies have also been channeled in naive and inappropriate ways with bitterness and disillusionment resulting.

The change model most appropriate for the intern should be that of individual innovator. We need new models of teaching behavior. More visible examples of courage are necessary. Teachers ought to be more visible in the community. We need models of teachers as real learners and experimenters. Change and how change is accomplished should be put into honest perspectives for the intern. Individual experimentation by the intern as a teacher should be encouraged. Too often, whether consciously or not, we see ourselves as "the model" for interns to emulate. Effort and courage are needed to provide the opportunity and support for genuine individual innovation by the interns.

Recommendation 4:

Team leaders should be selected on the basis of visible evidence of commitment to change and openness to new ideas. The study of organizing for change, especially institutional change, should be required for both team leaders and interns. Areas of change and innovation should be analyzed with respect to cooperative and individual responsibilities. The interns' responsibilities for change within the program should be put into proper perspective. Emphasis should be on generating new kinds of teachers.

Decision-Making

The second area of concentration identified in establishing a climate for effective interaction with interns is that of decision-making. The kinds of decisions to be made by personnel in the program is another order of business that must be dealt with. Because different Teacher Corps programs assume different roles and responsibilities, specific decision-making channels will not be detailed here. Our concern is that there be an understanding of the processes involved in decision-making.

In visiting and working with instructional teams, a frequently observed problem is the inability of groups to make decisions efficiently. Time in team teaching is a precious commodity. Ground rules for decisions, however simple they might be, must be established. Later in this paper guidelines for instructional decision-making will be suggested. Prior to instructional

decision-making is effective general decision-making. The following questions can serve as organizing centers for the development of ground rules for decision making:

1. What types of decisions will have to be made in our program design?

2. What are standing decisions or policies?

3. Which decisions are most appropriately made by the team leader?

4. Which decisions are most appropriately made by the interns as a group?

5. Which decisions should be made mutually?

6. Which decisions can be made by individuals?

Yet another set of questions might help answer the above questions:

1. What decisions am I competent or able to make?

2. What decisions am I willing to assume responsibility for at this time?

3. What kind of time do we have available for making certain kinds of decisions?

Recommendation 5:

It is recommended that these types of questions be applied specifically to Teacher Corps guidelines as these are translated and interpreted into operating guidelines for the teams. Emphasis on practice and analysis of group decision-making and practice in the construction of simple flow charts, such as the PERT method of deciding and assigning responsibilities, is recommended. Periodic videotaping and analysis of decision-making sessions should be accomplished.

Preparing to Teach Children

Planning for Planning

Earlier in this paper we noted that most initial efforts in teams or units of teachers fell short in the area of planning and organizing. A good beginning point in a discussion of organizing for instruction is the development of a routine and a review of the mechanics necessary to plan efficiently as a team--a plan for planning if you will.

A basic reason that we have not widely utilized more sophisticated teaching behaviors or models is that the time allowed for planning for teaching is inadequate. The classroom teacher spends the great majority of his time teaching or interacting with children. If we expect a teacher to plan diversified and sophisticated instructional activities, we must provide the needed time.

In the case of the team leader coordinating the efforts of a number of teachers, the wise use of time is crucial. An early task is to decide upon the types of meetings desired and then to find times for those meetings. A team may have meetings for planning the curriculum, for delegating teaching responsibilities, for evaluating their own teaching, for discussing learner needs, for discussing learner evaluation, for organizing supplies, resources, and space, or just for brainstorming. Priorities for frequency of each of these meetings have to be set. The following guidelines are suggested for getting the mechanics of meeting organized:

1. Reserve specific times for specific meetings.

2. Have a set agenda with specified times for items when possible.

3. Have one team member assigned to serve as a process observer or facilitator of communication.

4. Differentiate staff assignments in planning just as in teaching; not everyone should attend every meeting nor be involved in every decision. Different team members should have different roles in meeting sessions.

5. Keep the organization flexible enough so that while some team members are teaching, others can be planning.

6. When possible, have ideas thought through and brought to the meeting for reaction rather than generating them at the meeting (unless the session is a brainstorming session).

Recommendation 6:

Team leaders should have simulated and laboratory experiences in developing group dynamics skills. Team leaders should have training in conducting meetings. Team leaders should have training in generating organizational patterns which will free some team members for planning while others are teaching. Different roles should be developed for facilitating different meetings.

Starting with Objectives

In organizing for the instruction of learners, the first question to ask is, "What do we want these learners to know, to feel, or to do?" "What are our objectives?" There has been considerable attention paid to objectives recently. Some of the "new" terminology speaks of instructional systems, behavioral objectives, and performance criteria. Each of these concepts will be examined briefly.

Systems and Objectives

Banathy[2], in describing a systems approach to instruction, outlines the following specific requirements for writing objectives. Objectives should specify:

1. What the learner is expected to be able to do by:
   a. using verbs that denote observable action,
   b. indicating the stimulus that is to evoke the behavior of the learner
   c. specifying resources (objects) to be used by the learner and persons with whom the learner should interact.

2. How well the behavior is expected to be performed by identifying:
   a. the accuracy or correctness of the response,
   b. response length, speed, rate, and so forth.

3. Under what circumstances the learner is expected to perform by specifying:
   a. the physical or situational circumstances, or
   b. the psychological conditions.

Behavioral Objectives

Behavioral objectives are usually defined in terms of the explicit behavior desired in the learner. "Understanding" is a general behavior open to several interpretations and not explicit, while "repeating an idea" would indicate more explicitly what behavior was desired from the learner. Advocates of behavioral objectives maintain that such explicit definitions are necessary in order to insure valid evaluation of the learner.

Performance Criteria

The term "performance criteria" means just that. What are the criteria that one will use to make judgments about desired performance? It is what Banathy refers to in point two above. The performance criteria indicate the degree of behavior or performance desired. Must the learner, for example, repeat the story within a certain time or a certain number of times to demonstrate his mastery? A specific example would be to have cooperation as a performance criteria for a learner. What evidence would you accept as being indicative of the fact that the child was cooperative? How he shares materials, the way he plays on the playground, and the way he works in small groups could all be developed as evidence for the performance concept of cooperation. The quality or quantity of those evidences further determine specific criteria.

With this brief and simplified overview in mind, let us take a more specific look at objectives as they relate to the role of the team leader in organizing a team for instruction. Our primary concern in the schools is what

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[2]Belan H. Banathy, Instructional Systems. (Palo Alto: Fearon Publishing Co.) 1969.

happens to the learners; it seems quite appropriate, therefore, to be concerned with writing objectives for learners. When someone has responsibility for teacher education as the team leader does, it seems equally appropriate that teacher education objectives be devised.

First, an alternative to Banathy's[3] outline for what objectives should include is suggested. Important learner behavior might rather be thought of as measurable and as measurable over varying periods of time rather than only observable. Likewise, it seems rather cumbersome to include both the stimulus that will evoke the behavior as well as a specification of the resources with which the learner should interact in the stated objective. Those types of considerations may be more appropriately considered after the objectives themselves are generated. It is suggested here that objectives be tested to meet certain criteria before specific strategies and resources are given too much attention.

The Teacher Education Process

Clarifying Objectives

Earlier the concept of the intern as an individual innovator was stressed. Hopefully, interns can generate worthwhile objectives both for the learners and themselves. It is suggested that the team leader could function well in the role of teacher educator by allowing the intern the flexibility and the autonomy to generate creative objectives. Then team members could suoject those selected objectives to analysis by applying certain criteria to them. A most appropriate first question about any educational objective is why it was selected. What is its source? By engaging the intern in such a process of clarification, objectives will not be selected from a limited base.

Inbalance in curriculum and instruction has generally resulted from objectives which from time to time have unduly emphasized childrens' interest, existing curricula, societal issues and problems, or only teacher interest. By constantly clarifying the source of objectives a balance of learning activities planned can be maintained together with a continuing examination of the purposes behind activities.

Developing Criteria

A second emphasis in analyzing intern objectives for learners is applying criteria to those objectives. Ammons[4] suggests the following criteria for evaluating objectives:

1. Appropriate in terms of the age, interest, and background of the child?

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[3] Ibid.

[4] Margaret P. Ammons, "Criteria for Evaluating Educational Objectives." (Unpublished manuscript. Madison: University of Wisconsin).

2. Feasible in terms of time, materials, space, personnel?

3. Consistent in that it does not contradict other instructional objectives?

If the objectives meet these criteria, then the green light can be given for more intensive work in the next area of planning and organizing. Banathy's concern for stimuli or learning activities and resources can now be given more emphasis. It is suggested that the primary concern with the development of objectives should not be that they meet some prescribed format, but that they do meet the criteria of appropriateness and worthwhileness for learners, and thought is given as to why they were selected. This procedure encourages initiative and innovation on the part of the intern while still preserving a measure of quality control through a process of clarification.

Recommendation 7:

The team leader should have practice in clarification techniques with respect to analyzing objectives for learners. The team leader should have training not only in developing behavioral objectives and performance criteria, but also in analyzing and clarifying those objectives in terms of the situation in which the team is working.

Organizing Teachers

As was stated earlier, the primary concern in designing an instructional system or strategy is what happens to the learners. This does not preclude the obvious fact that what the teacher does is also very important and objectives for teachers might also be generated. This latter concern is especially helpful in keeping communication open between a team or unit of teachers. This cooperative teaching endeavor has as one of its primary objectives the generation and facilitation of more diversified, more sophisticated teacher behavior and strategies than a single teacher could undertake.

Instruction and Teaching

At this time it might be well to differentiate between instruction and teaching. Instruction is defined here as a larger system. It is the curriculum plan in action. The instructional system deals with such variables as time, space, materials, resources, teachers, learners, rooms, and movement. The teacher and, subsequently, teaching is but one aspect of this larger instructional system. What, then, is teaching? This is a question which can be answered in a number of ways. There certainly is no consensus in defining this complex process. Any number of metaphors can quite appropriately be used to describe teaching. Some indicate the processes involved, such as diagnostician, facilitator, or counselor. Other metaphors indicate the complexity of the process such as ombudsman or human computer. Still other terms are not nearly so complimentary, such as time keeper, judge, traffic manager, or task master

Likewise, there are a number of definitions which attempt to get more specifically at the complexities involved in this act. These definitions range from the very simple definition of all that a teacher does in a classroom to definitions that hinge upon something being changed in the learner as a result of what the teacher has done. Regardless of how one attempts to define teaching, in order to really grapple with it as a teacher educator or a teacher of teachers, the concept has to be broken down. This is where the development of objectives for teachers comes in.

One way to get young people as well as experienced teachers to be individual innovators who experiment with teaching would be to raise the following kinds of questions with them:

1. How can I explicitly vary cognitive levels in the classroom?
2. What are some specific problem-solving methods I can use with learners?
3. How can I better involve learners in instructional decision-making?
4. What are the dynamics of different groups in learning?
5. What are value clarification techniques?
6. How can I analyze and develop motivational techniques?
7. How can I get pupils to be productive question askers?
8. How can I analyze my questions as a teacher?
9. How can I analyze classroom structure and management?
10. How can I examine the influence I exert?
11. How can I analyze communication patterns in the classroom?
12. What am I communicating in my nonverbal behavior?

Generating Teacher Strategies

Certainly, no one teacher designs an instructional strategy in which he takes into consideration: cognitive levels, method of problem solving, the dynamics of learning groups, the type of affect or feeling which he hopes will evolve, and the style of communication pattern which he desires. Yet all of these are important variables in the dynamic process of teaching. Perhaps individual interns could concentrate on developing skills within these specific dimensions of classroom teaching. One intern, for example, might attempt to develop skill in the area of designing cognitive strategies while another might attempt to develop skill in putting together groups of learners on the basis of social or emotional considerations. Yet another intern might wish to specialize in types of problem-solving strategies such as induction or deduction.

Such a proposal may seem rather esoteric or impractical in the real world of teaching. However, here is one way to exploit the uniqueness of the Teacher Corps model. Here is an opportunity to get at the very roots of both teacher education and teaching. Although initial efforts might be difficult and limited in scope, certainly attention should be directed to this most fertile area in terms of innovation.

Most cooperative teaching arrangements are of relatively recent vintage and have been somewhat limited in the creative use of specializing or differentiating and blending teaching personnel. Teachers have been differentiating primarily on the basis of curricular knowledge rather than teaching skill. Team members, for example, have tended to specialize in mathematics or science or language arts. At the elementary level, there has always been concern about too much fragmentation in the curriculum. Perhaps the teams or units of the future will also better differentiate responsibilities on the basis of knowledge and expertise in teaching and instructional skills. Teacher Corps teams could serve as such prototypes. Such efforts seem more relevant to meeting the needs of learners than an organization pattern which could reinforce a separate subject curriculum. The reference to curriculum or content, however, brings us into the next area of concern in organizing for instruction, that is the organization of content.

Recommendation 8:

The team leader should engage in the systematic study of teaching behaviors. Isolated dimensions of teaching behavior should be analyzed and developed with the extensive use of videotape. Interns should have opportunity for specialized instructional or teaching responsibilities. A number of teaching variables should be considered in designing instructional activities in a team situation.

Organization of Content

The organization of content will be approached from two perspectives. First, what are possible centers around which learning can be organized, and second, what are criteria which we can use in determining the appropriateness and worthwhileness of those ways of organizing for learning?

Organizing Centers

The focal point around which teaching and learning takes place will be referred to here as an "organizing center." Goodlad[5] defines an organizing center as follows:

> "It is instructional flesh on curricular bones. The organizing center for learning occupies a segment of time and of space. It is intended for specific learners in a specific instructional setting."

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[5]John I. Goodlad, Planning and Organizing for Teaching. (NEA Project on Instruction, Washington: 1963), p. 94.

An organizing center might be a book, a skit, a field trip, a presentation by you the teacher, or independent study by the learner. The organizing center may last a few minutes, a few hours, days, or even weeks. It can involve one person, a small group, or hundreds of learners.

One obvious organizing center--unfortunately an overworked one--would be a textbook in a single subject area. This organizing center is quite limited in scope. However, there are many other centers for organizing. Organizing centers, in fact, are limited only by the imagination of the teacher. Focusing upon differences would be one approach to organizing for instruction that was broader in scope and led to cutting across subject lines. For example, content or curriculum could be organized in terms of such differences as: the young and the old, the caring and the not caring, the rich and the poor, the happy and the sad, the beautiful and the ugly, or the honest and the dishonest. This is just one possible approach to creative exploration of organizing content by the intern. As was stated earlier, there is a fertile area of exploration in the development of teaching strategies. Likewise, there is an equally fertile area of exploration in the development of exciting organizing centers for instruction.

Criteria for Centers

A number of criteria can be applied to organizing centers selected for accomplishing instructional objectives. One way to evaluate organizing centers is to analyze them as to the degree to which they are primarily abstractions, that is symbolically based, or to the degree to which they are more concrete, that is experienced based. A continuum could include: verbal symbols, that is the spoken word, still visual symbols such as pictures, moving pictures, viewing of objects via various field experiences; and, finally, actual involvement by the learner.[6] Obviously all types of learning experiences are valid, but checking them against such a format helps insure that some flexibility is incorporated in designing learning activities and that important concepts are not left on an abstract level.

Goodlad[7] has also identified a number of criteria for analyzing and evaluating learning activities or organizing centers:

"1. Does the organizing center allow for and encourage the learner to practice the behavior desired in the objective? This seems rather obvious perhaps, but far too often what we state we want from the learners we do not allow for. . . .

2. A good organizing center or learning activity allows for and encourages the learner to practice several behaviors. The creative teacher can get 60 minutes of teaching-learning time out of 30 minutes of clock time. . . .

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[6]See, Edgar Dale, Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching (New York: Dryden Press, Revised Ed., 1959), p. 43.

[7]Goodlad, pp. 96-102.

3. A good organizing center or learning activity relates to prior and forthcoming learnings planned for the students. . . .

4. A good organizing center is flexible enough to provide a challenge to the more capable learner as well as an interest for that child at a lower level of accomplishment. . . .

5. A good organizing center has mobility in terms of moving into other times, other places, and other ideas. For example, a dichotomy such as the rich and the poor has more mobility than the study of a single city. The good organizing center can be sufficiently comprehensive to provide for a wide range of differences in interest and learning styles."

The concern for learning styles leads to our last consideration in terms of the instructional system, that is the organization of learning.

Recommendation 9:

The team leader should have practice in generating a wide variety of organizing centers for learning. He should have practice in applying criteria as to the quality and scope of organizing centers. The team leader should emphasize diversity in organizing centers to get maximum opportunities for learners in a team approach to instruction.

Organizing Learners

In spite of the fact that considerable effort is expended in efforts to set up inner class groups on the basis of ability or achievement, we have considerable evidence that we cannot reduce too greatly the overall range of pupil variability. This is not to say that on a short term basis learners might most effectively be grouped because of parallel competencies or interest. The fact of the matter is, however, that homogeneity in any kind of a complete sense over any period of time cannot be achieved. Our efforts might well be more productive in promoting individual differences rather than in attempting to group them away. There are a considerable number of criteria on which learners can be grouped other than intellectual potential or achievement. Various interests, sex, learner preference for a certain type of instructional setting, multi-age tutoring, or social interaction are examples of other criteria for grouping.

Learning Styles

Another fruitful area of exploration for the intern as an individual innovator is exploring the concept of grouping children on the basis of their individual styles of learning. Again, there is considerable speculation as to the different learning formats in which different learners feel more comfortable in than others. In observing students in a college setting, certainly one readily observable difference in learning style would be that of note-taking as opposed to mere listening. However, in working with younger learners, it would appear that a wider range of preferred styles or modes of learning could be discovered or generated.

It was suggested earlier that learning activities might be designed on a continuum from the symbolic to the experiential. Parallel to that thinking, preferred learning styles might well vary for individual learners as to whether it was basically aural or listening, visual, psychomotor, or doing. Likewise, learning styles might differ with the number of people in a group. Some people might learn best alone, others in pairs or in groups of three or four, and yet some others in a larger group. Obviously, the type of environment is a factor in how one learns. When one observes today's typical teenager engaged in homework, it would appear the most comfortable learning style is with the radio and television on simultaneously. Certainly for others, a quiet corner is more conducive to learning. Likewise, some people prefer at least certain types of learning in a passive relaxed state while others appear to have to be moving or "twitching" regardless of the type of learning they are engaging in. Another possible area of exploration in learning styles is cognitive levels. It may well be that certain learners prefer, or at least assume, a remembering or recall pattern of learning. Other learners may be more analytic or synthetic or evaluative in their learning. These are but a few possible styles learners might prefer. Certainly other possibilities could be generated. The important point here is that once again the team leader with the team of interns has an opportunity to do some exploration and innovation in terms of organizing learners for instruction on the basis of "learning style."

Recommendation 10:

The team leader engages in the systematic study of learning activities. He develops measures for inventorying learner interests and concerns. He utilizes learner needs and interests in the way learners are deployed in various instructional activities. Emphasis should be given to discovering individual learning styles.

Putting It All Together

How can the total instructional system be implemented? Let's examine the team leader's responsibility in this process. The team leader has a responsibility with his team for developing objectives, evaluating those objectives, and then organizing content, teachers, and learners to meet those objectives.

The choices available to the team leader are many. He might decide to organize for instruction on the basis of teacher strengths. For example, he might have one teacher take a group because he wishes to work on problem solving; another teacher could take a group because of an interest in developing group dynamic skills; yet another teacher might work with a group in order to analyze and develop certain communication skills.

Another emphasis in organizing for instruction could be the learning styles of the children. The team leader might assign a teacher to one group of learners in a rather passive listening setting. He might assign one teacher to another group of learners in a more visual setting and assign a third group of learners to a teacher in an environment in which considerable movement and manipulation is planned.

A third possibility might be that the team leader deploys learners on the basis of information on the needs of the learners. He might, within the area of social studies for example, deploy one group of learners because of a need they have for developing generalizations. A second group might be deployed because of a need for practice with certain reading skills, and the social studies content would serve as a vehicle for practice in that area. A third group might be deployed to bring out certain of their attitudes. Yet a fourth group might be deployed in order to get them to work on the ability to generate and test hypotheses. A fifth group might be deployed because they need skill in locating information. A final suggested possibility and the one we are most familiar with is that he might deploy learners on the basis of a single subject area and on the basis of their stage of development or achievement in that area.

As one can see, the possible decisions involved in the development of objectives and learning activities and the deployment of teachers and learners within those activities can be as challenging and complex as one wishes to make it. The lead teacher who designs these instructional systems is truly in a crucial role. It would be extremely naive to think that the Teacher Corps team leader with an inexperienced group of interns could operate at anywhere near the level of sophistication that would be required to integrate completely all of the organizational possibilities outlined. Consideration was given to a range of possibilities in the area of organizing for instruction, however, to indicate that there is much to do and there are many places to begin.

The opportunities for individual and group innovators are considerable. One does not have to change an entire school or a total program to be innovative. Organizing for the teaching of interns as well as for the teaching of learners is a challenging undertaking. It is kind of a "super" challenge. The hope is that Teacher Corps can attract the super kind of people who are willing to meet that challenge head on. The task is to provide the training and support which will help them to succeed in their new roles.

TEAM LEADERS AND COMMUNITIES: THE SOCIOLOGICAL MONKEY ON THE TEAM LEADER'S BACK

ABSTRACT

In this paper we confront the real dilemma of the team leader. We raise the question of whether it is reasonable to expect any member of the educational "establishment" to succeed in the role and suggest the type of training needed if the team leader must take on the role as presently--ambiguously--defined.

by

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TEAM LEADERS AND COMMUNITIES: THE SOCIOLOGICAL MONKEY ON THE TEAM LEADER'S BACK

By Russell C. Doll

Purpose

The purpose of this paper is to analyze factors related to the functioning of Team Leaders in relation to the "neighborhood community." In some instances the analysis of factors goes beyond the "community," and concerns elements of the Team Leader's network of formal and informal relationships. This holistic approach is necessary since the Team Leader functions in a complex social system of which the community is actually a small part. Since each part of the social system affects the other, our analysis includes factors such as perceptions of the principal, faculty, and interns.

The framework for this analysis will be provided by certain aspects of reference group theory. The various role expectations and the normative structures set up by the reference groups will be the primary focus of this analysis.

Assumptions

It has long been recognized that an individual's reference group influences his values and attitudes and the behaviors he does or does not exhibit. It has also been recognized that a reference group is often more influential than formal training or cognitive understanding of the behaviors one should exhibit according to the training received. A persuasive argument has been made[1] that reference groups can influence the role behavior of individuals and that this role behavior tends to approximate the normative structure of the reference group. Severe conflict is developed within a person who, through particular formal and informal pressures, is forced to relate to a number of reference groups and operate within a number of normative structures.

In regard to a person's social system it is safe to say that:

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[1]Jay Jackson, "Reference Group Process in a Formal Organization," Sociometry, 1959, 22, 307-27; Alberta Engrall Siegel and Sidney Siegel, "Reference Groups, Membership Groups and Attitude Change," The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1957, 55, 360-64.

> ". . . a person . . . is constantly attempting to maximize his personal gratification and to minimize his (psychological) deprivation . . . (and) . . . the . . . symbols of indications of social approval and disapproval sensed by a person in his relations with others (are) directly related to the magnitude of his personal gratifications or deprivation. His ego needs (are) satisfied or denied to the degree that he perceived other's valuing or devaluing him in his role as a member of the system."[2]

In attempting to maximize his personal gratification a person often alters role behavior to coincide with the norms of the group to which he is referring.

Dysfunction in behavior develops when the reference groups are "artificial" (i.e., imposed by formal structure such as guideline expectations, etc.) and when these "artificial" groups conflict with the reference groups which are "real" (i.e., those groups to which the person actually aspires or in which he was a previous member and has internalized the group's norms). Dysfunction in behavior is often manifested by withdrawal from contacts with different groups, by strained relations among groups, by an inability to take aggressive action in relating to the "artificial" groups, and if in a job situation, not performing as expected by the formal criteria.

By utilizing reference group theory and the power of normative structures in determining a person's behavior independent of his formal training and cognitive understandings, we can make a number of assumptions. These assumptions are:

1. Formal training experiences and cognitive understandings <u>are not as potent</u> in influencing behaviors and attitudes as are socio-psychological dynamics of which reference groups and normative structure are a part.
2. Team leaders' <u>formal training</u> and <u>cognitive understandings</u> are often made irrelevant or are neglected by the team leader because of the pressures of normative structures found in the "real" reference groups.
3. The normative structures of the "real" and "artificial" groups are often sources of conflict for the team leader.
4. The normative structures of many reference groups <u>tend to be oriented toward political interests, self-interest of members of the group, and</u>, in the case of the "artificial" groups, <u>formal constraints</u>.
5. The most potent norms are those which have been internalized over long periods of time.
6. Acceptance of a person by his reference groups leads to high degrees of role fulfillment, and this leads to high degrees of satisfaction.

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[2]Jackson, p. 307.

7. Role fulfillment and satisfaction leads to efficiency and a wish to continue the satisfying pattern of behavior.

The above assumes a great deal. Yet, in general, research in social psychology would tend to support the assumptions. If one accepts the assumptions, then implications are raised about our emphasis throughout this position paper. One such implication bears on the concentration of position papers on suggestions and discussions concentrating on what should or could be done (suggestions and discussions which are often based on idealized or even romanticized situations) to an emphasis concentrating on what is happening. It is the same issue faced by the Project staff as they gather data about the actual and the ideal behavior of team leaders. This position paper will be descriptive and will concentrate on what is happening.

The following descriptions and recommendations are based upon the writer's two years of experience with a Teacher Corps program as consultant, instructor, and participant observer. Other information was gathered through interview with the following:

a. five former Teacher Corps interns
b. three former Teacher Corps team leaders
c. six "community leaders" having contact with Teacher Corps
d. three "community parents" having contact with Teacher Corps
e. three principals of schools which had Teacher Corps interns and team leaders
f. one "non-school" person closely connected with Teacher Corps
g. one highly placed central office person closely connected with Teacher Corps

The interviews took place over a period of one year within which two distinct periods can be identified. The first period was about one year ago and extended over the course of that year. The second period was very recent and extended over three months while the writer was working on this paper. The second period was an attempt verify crudely the results of the interview data gathered earlier and to see if opinions had changed among those interviewed initially.

The method used is clinical in nature with all the limitations and advantages of this method. The sample is limited to one program. However, in general, opinions remained constant, and similar kinds of opinions were heard by the writer when talking to Teacher Corps personnel from other programs.

In the remaining portion of this paper we will discuss "what happens" in groups with which the team leader came into contact and the effect of this contact on the team leader. The analysis of the contact will center on the potency of reference groups and the potency of normative structures in shaping behavior and in encouraging or inhibiting behavior.

Reference Groups and Normative Structures

Neighborhood

Teacher Corps, in general, and team leaders, in particular, seem to operate on the premise that there is an easily identifiable "neighborhood community" and that this "community" shares a common set of aspirations and motivations. The premise tends to create for the team leader one cohesive reference group.[3] Much of the frustration, disillusionment, and friction which team leaders feel over a period of time can be attributed to this initial erroneous expectation regarding "community."

In actuality, there generally is no "neighborhood community" but a number of "multi-communities" within a geographical area called "neighborhood." The multi-communities vary in size, ideological base, expectations for the school, and in method of relating to the school.

One of the sub-communities of the multi-communities might be a small, tightly knit group with a politico-ideological base. Examples are the Chicano Brown Berets, Black Panthers, or Sons of Malcolm. Another of the sub-communities might be centered around formal organizations, such as church groups, Model Cities or Human Resources agencies. Other sub-communities might be amorphous groupings, sharing multiple memberships in different groups, while still others might be the silent, wider community with a vague and hazy interest in "issues." Instead of one reference group, the team leader must relate to many "community" groups, each group having its own particular normative structure and each normative structure setting expectations of particular kinds of behaviors from members. The normative structure also imposes expectations on those "outside" the group who might be making attempts to "relate" to the "community" group.

Each of the sub-communities, then, has a demanding normative structure. Often the normative structure is centered upon maintaining the stability of the group and is actually focused on special interests regarding the group. The group often expects its members to behave in a fashion that protects its special interest.

In relating to different groups one should be politically astute and knowledgeable in the way the group has formed its normative structure and what the group expects from those making "overtures" to it. One should also know the special interests of the group. To say this precludes the usual romanticized version of community as a united constituency searching for entree into the school so that all parties might altruistically cooperate for the benefit of all the children.

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[3]Douglas Dean, an assistant director of a Teacher Corps program, has pointed out that "team leaders recognized macro-geographical differences in the city (i.e., east-west side differences)."

A more realistic picture of "community" might be that which we pieced together using the information gathered as participant observer and from the interview data. This picture is one of fragmentation of "neighborhood" groups with members of the different groups having internalized certain norms.

In regard to the "school" and its "representatives," the norms relating to the role of the "school" will vary by group. The groups will expect, with differing degrees of intensity, different things from the school and different degrees of commitment and loyalty to the norms of the group. The team leader is thus entering a malestrom of expectations. He enters this complex of sub-societies as an "outsider." He enters with the formally assigned task of relating "community" to school and this formally assigned task is often imposed by an "artificial" reference group.

The team leader is initially faced with the task of "relating." Since the sub-communities vary in their potential as reference groups, some are more visible than others. Team leaders frequently reported that their initial mistake was to become involved with the more highly visible groups with which they attempted to "relate" (enter the framework of the normative structure) at the expense of future relations with the less visible of the sub-communities.[4]

Often the group most visible to the team leaders were those having a politico-ideological base but with a normative structure at odds with the school and its staff. The normative structure of this group usually demanded a high degree of commitment to a certain politico-ideological goal. The team leader, in his efforts to "relate," often made an attempt to become highly visible himself and "helpful" and "understanding" of this particular group. Unfortunately for the team leader, a "tentative" commitment often turned out to be a commitment which he was expected to keep. When push came to shove in issues relating to the school and faculty, the sub-community which the team leader had taken as his reference group demanded the team leader's "loyalty."

The late dawning on the team leader of this particular dynamic raised problems with the school and interns (to be dealt with later). It also raised problems in regard to the team leaders' relations with the other sub-communities since, after a time, the team leaders became aware of other less visible groups who did not share the same politico-ideological ideas and did not relate to the school in the same fashion as the initial reference group. These other groups, meanwhile, began to exert their pressures on the team leader as he began to "relate" to them.

It was at this point that the team leader reported feeling confined and pressured from different groups. Having expected to be relating to a holistic "community," he found himself relating to many "sub-communities." Each

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[4]"I think one of the biggest problems was that they (team leaders) began to take up with groups that, although limited in numbers, exerted an unusually large show of force. A kind of 'pseudo-community power.'" (representative statement)

"sub-community" imposed its normative structure on the team leader, and each normative structure had a different role definition for the team leader.

For one sub-community, the now committed team leader was to be a "militant" as was "his" intern. For another sub-community, the team leader was to be a moderate, working through established channels and recognized institutions. For another, the team leader and the interns were to help the children outside of school, for example, in tutorial capacities. The team leader was to be both a tiger and an owl, a change agent and a keeper of stability. He was eventually caught in a sociological nutcracker.

This confusion of loyalties with each of the sub-communities perceiving the team leader as having related to <u>their</u> needs and as having offered potential support of one kind or another, produced great role conflict and dissatisfaction for the team leader. When the team leader and the interns found they had to function as a representative for "all" the community, they could serve neither "community" nor groups. Of if they served one group, it was at the peril of losing the others.

The team leader often lost all effectiveness in the face of the conflicting demands of the various reference groups and their expectations. The usual reaction was to break the period of ineffectiveness by moving back to the security of the formal institution of the schools since the team leader had internalized the institutional norms a long time ago. At the same time the team leader took the safest of stands and began to "work" with the "moderate" community. But no matter which way the team leader moved, he ran the risk of losing credibility with a number of the sub-communities (to be discussed later) and with his interns.

With the loss of credibility came a tendency to receive less acceptance from previously potent reference groups. Since acceptance leads to a high degree of role fulfillment, nonacceptance leads to lack of role fulfillment, low degrees of satisfaction, and a withdrawal from a dissatisfying situation. Lack of role fulfillment and high dissatisfaction decreased the efficiency of the team leader in regard to community. It also led to the team leader's ignoring the formal directives of Teacher Corps since the directives were actually from an "artificial" reference group. The team leader retreated into the security of the "real" reference group he had known all of his professional life. Unfortunately, this retreat led to problems with another group to which he had to refer and which was a potent group for the team leader: the Teacher Corps interns on his team.

Interns

If retreat leads to a loss of credibility with the "community," it often leads to a loss of respect from the interns. Many interns seem to have an ideological, romanticized idea of community. The interns have sometimes developed "anti-establishment" feelings before coming into Teacher Corps. The philosophy and formal expectations of Teacher Corps provide an "artificial" reference group whose norms encourage this feeling, these norms being rather "freewheeling" in nature. Not having taught before entering Teacher Corps, the intern has not had as much of an opportunity to internalize the norms of

the "school" and its "faculty" as have the team leaders. Having to sustain the school's social system and its formal structure has never been a part of the intern's "job" as it was the team leader's while the team leader was a teacher. Thus, the school was never as potent a reference group for the intern as for the team leader.

Both team leader and interns, however, have undergone similar kinds of training during which the reference groups become primarily those comprised of urban scholars, urban educators, and "pop-educational" writers who offer romanticized views of community (reinforcing the intern's view). During training the interns become a most potent reference group to the team leader, one which the team leader both likes and fears. The team leader is in a formal position of authority, but the informal norms of the interns make him as much a prisoner as a leader.

It is terribly difficult for a team leader to become a "part" of the intern group without adopting their normative structure. There is basically little in common between team leader and intern except that all profess a wish to help the child and "improve education and teaching." Age barriers, family responsibilities of the team leaders, differences in basic philosophy, caution born of experience, and even an underlying hostility caused by socio-economic differences and educational background tend to hinder a "natural" grouping of team leader and interns.

Often the team leader and interns both agree that community work is important. The difference is that the interns are internalizing exhortations while the team leaders, with their backgrounds in the schools, are merely excited about community work as something to do because "it is supposed to help" and because Teacher Corps guidelines "say it should be done." Scratch a community-oriented team leader and you will find a classroom teacher. Scratch a community-oriented intern and you'll find Jonathan Kozal, et. al.

The influence of the normative structure, heightened by pre-service, justifiably cries out for more "community participation." The intern internalizes and tries it out. The team leader just tries. The interns are ready to move and march. The team leader is ready to move but is not certain just where.

Subtle pressures are applied by the interns on the team leaders to get them to move quickly and aggressively in the community, to "relate" to the "neighborhood community," to bring the "community" into the decision-making process, to give a "voice" to the "community." The team leader does this to retain "credibility" with his interns and because his training and the expectations of Teacher Corps point him in that direction. (Many team leaders, of course, are not reluctant but willingly move aggressively in the community, sharing the norms, at present, of the intern group.)

Unfortunately, reluctant and aggressive team leaders move into the "community" in the way described above and find to their chagrin that the sub-communities take the team leader's tentative commitments at face value. The interns, however, have become committed, more than the team leader, to becoming change agents with the "community." When the team leader backs off, he is now in a position of losing credibility with and the respect of his interns.

His position becomes intolerable when many interns have become associated with portions of the multi-community which have a politico-ideological base, and the more "moderate" community becomes upset over the interns' relations with these groups. Telling the interns to "cool it" is impossible. Yet, for the team leaders to allow a close and active relationship to exist between interns and a "radical" sub-community while the team leader is "retreating" to the "moderate" community is to upset the moderate sub-community and lead them to question the sincerity of the team leader. The team leader's position becomes even more intolerable when the school and the administration become upset over the actions of the interns. And the team leader often goes into full retreat when the surface aspects (or "first blush") of "community" work have worn thin, and the latent, internalized norms of the school provide a safe haven in this quickly breaking storm.

The interns begin to exclude the team leader from the informal group when the team leader retreats to the "safe" school although the interns do recognize his formal position. The team leader then calls for the interns to return to a concentration on their primary goal: teacher training. The interns, not yet having had a taste of teaching, do not at this point give much weight to this part of the team leader's advice. Team leaders and interns develop a truce. The team leader moves psychologically from the unrewarding situation, and another barrier to community work has been erected--a barrier between team leader and intern.

The Principal and Faculty

Many principals are put in the position of looking all ways at once. They have multiple reference groups, both artificial and real, from which they get their cues for behavior, for which they feel certain loyalties, and which formally define roles and bounds for behavior. A partial listing might include AFT, District Superintendent, PTA, General Superintendent, NEA, Board of Education, Classroom Teachers' Association, community, and school faculty. Each of these groups has a direct or indirect influence on how much encouragement the principal wishes to give to the team leaders and interns while each group, formally or informally, defines the boundaries marking threatening and nonthreatening involvement. The principal's reference groups, then, are often independent of the team leaders and intern groups, and the principal's expectations are sometimes in conflict with the expectations being forced on the team leader by Teacher Corps guidelines and the sub-communities.

In most cases, the most salient reference groups for the principal are the higher administration and the faculty of the school. The principal has probably internalized the norms of these groups, having, most likely, come "up the ranks" in that very district. It is also these groups with which he engages in the greatest number of face to face contacts. These groups are also powerful in that they can confer or withhold tangible rewards, such as promotion (administration) or intangible rewards, such as professional or personal acceptance (faculty). Indeed, in many schools the principal-faculty relationship has developed to such a degree that they are no longer secondary group relationships but border on primary group relationships.

Relationships between the principal/faculty and the team leader/interns are not as intense since both team leader and interns are superimposed upon an ongoing social system, are almost by definition appendages of the ongoing and formalized social system, and will in time be gone from the ongoing social system.

So the principal, while probably agreeing with the spirit of the team leader's forays into the community and with the team leader's attempts to relate "community" and school, cannot afford a great deal of emotional, personal, or professional investment in the community aspect of the team leader's work. The only exception to this lack of principal support is when the work fits the institutionalized normative structure and/or the informal normative structure of the faculty. The principal cannot politically afford vigorous encouragement without wholesale backing from higher administrative sources, nor can he jeopardize the autonomy of his faculty which looks to him for some "professional protection." Often, he cannot encourage the team leader because formal groups, such as the PTA resent his encouraging "outside people," an evident social-political snub to the "recognized" group, i.e., the PTA.

Finally, the principal himself does not really encourage this work since he is probably having a difficult enough time just attempting to fulfill his formally assigned role as principal without assuming an imposed role of community agent. All of this places the team leader in an unfortunate position. Often the principal would prefer that the team leader spend his time operating within the institutionalized normative structure, which is academically oriented. As for the faculty, they, too, expect the team leader to function within the framework of their concerns which, like it or not, centers on classroom and school matters. They expect team leader's support in helping the interns. This support includes coordinating the teams for teaching, checking lesson plans, observing teaching, getting the "reality" of teaching over to the interns and persuading the interns to be "practical" in their outlook on the profession. The team leader is expected to first fulfill the institutional expectations, "help the intern become a good teacher," and when the task is successfully completed, then, and only then, should the team leader engage in "adventures" into the "community."

Team Leaders

No matter how much urging the team leader may be given, no matter how well thought out a series of position papers telling what the team leader ought to do or theoretically can do, the sociological monkey is on the team leader's back. It is this monkey which negates the best laid, best intentioned plans. Team leaders have a multiplicity of roles to fill within the formal organization of Teacher Corps and the school, both of which provide a normative structure of varying intensity which the team leader ignores at his own peril. Further, there are the informal norms of the school and interns, some of which are divergent, but all of which serve as a break or spur to action. It would take an extraordinary person to shape all of these intra-organizational expectations and pressures into a cohesive and meaningful inter-organizational working.

Although attempts are made to select extraordinary people to be team leaders, the definition of extraordinary might not be conducive to selecting a person able to balance all of the sociological dynamics. The team leader is often selected primarily on the basis of his having been a good classroom teacher. If he can supplement the initial recommendation of principal, friends, clergy, etc. by verbalizing some degree of commitment to the ideals of Teacher Corps, and if he really feels strongly about the worthwhileness of Teacher Corps, he stands a good chance of being selected as a team leader. Still, for all practical purposes, he is primarily a good classroom teacher who is expected to work as community agent.

The team leader is usually of a higher socio-economic level than those in the multi-communities and tends to be rather protective of his status as a middle class professional. It is questionable whether such deeply internalized norms can be radically changed by a series of limited training experiences. It is even questionable if an extended series of experiences can make a significant difference in the team leader's attitudes.

The minority group team leader, in particular, seems to have internalized the "middle-class professional" norms to a greater degree than other team leaders. Perhaps it is because entrance into this "middle-class professional" group was so recently achieved. Or maybe the feeling originates in the fact that a minority group member would have more to lose in giving up the status position than would a non-minority group member. If "middle-class professional" is lost, then what can differentiate them in the eyes of the wider society and in their own eyes from the "rest of their people." The threat of losing this status is often a very real one and tends to diminish the team leader in the eyes of other minority group members on a faculty as well as to threaten the status of minority group staff members who themselves are not too certain of their position in the wider society except that they are "professional." To the shame of our society and its shattered ideals, the hard-earned middle-class status is the rock of respectability to which many minority group members cling. Many are not about to let the waves from a lower socio-economic group wash them off and place them in the same turbulent ocean. In the end, this feeling predominates no matter how much cognitive understanding there is in regard to "community" and verbal fluency in enunciating the "good" of working with community.

Training

Implications for planning team leader training raised by the above analysis center upon two alternatives:

1. Decreasing the number of reference groups to which the team leader must formally relate and allowing the team leader to work principally with the groups that are "real" to him.

2. Keeping the same number of reference groups as are presently formally assigned to the team leaders but concentrate more on making the team leader aware of the socio-psychological dynamics of his job.

Decreasing the Number of Reference Groups

If the above analysis is correct, the team leaders have internalized the normative structures of institutionalized reference groups. Thus the staff, principals, and institutionally related groups are, for them, the "real" reference groups. The community is an "artificial" reference group. Team leaders will probably be more efficient, more rewarded, and less threatened if they work primarily within the institutional structure which, for all practical purposes, will remain their primary reference group.

This is not to recommend eliminating contact with, and knowledge of, the "community." It is, however, to recommend that less emphasis be given in the formal expectation of Teacher Corps to work in the "community" as a primary task. It is, in the opinion of the writer, unrealistic to expect one person to be able to function well in a situation where the various groups vie to force "commitment" and "loyalties" to their particular group. To close one's eyes to the fact that there are, and probably will be for a long period of time, fundamental differences, political issues and perceptions between sub-communities and the school and among the sub-communities themselves is to be less than candid. To expect this gap to be bridged by one person or to expect that this person can be seen as "neutral" by the different groups is to be grossly unfair to this person and leads to a kind of team leader schizophrenia.

This suggests that Teacher Corps explore the possibility of adding another person to the team leader and intern combination. This person would be one for whom the sub-communities would be a primary reference group and for which they would have internalized the normative structure. It might be a knowledgeable person from one of the sub-communities who might not have been highly visible and who is judged to be acceptable to different of the sub-communities. It might be a person trained in community work who would not be from the community thereby lessening the possibility of "intra-community" conflict while increasing the possibility that this third person would have an understanding of "institutional" problems. He might be called a Community Liaison Person (CLP).

It is not the intent here to point out his specific duties. However, we would like to suggest some possibilities. The CLP could work with the team leader and interns, interpreting to them the normative structure of the different sub-communities. He could also work with the principal and staff. Both he and the team leader would have contact with the community and work with interns in the community. However, the CLP would take the initiative in this, thus providing the team leader with the possibility of maintaining credibility and respect of the interns since the pressures of the interns' informal normative structure regarding "community" would be taken up by the CLP. This arrangement also allows the team leader to retain a better relationship with principal and faculty since the team leader would not be seen as attempting to subvert the institution while working within its framework.

This, of course, could place the CLP in a difficult position with the faculty and principal of the school. This possibility is still preferable to the situation which develops between the team leader, faculty, and administration. Difficult relations between the CLP and faculty will have less devastating consequences on the interns since the team leader can continue to work cooperatively with the faculty, coordinating work and giving academic assistance, valuable and necessary work requiring positive relations with the faculty. At the same time, the CLP can possibly retain amiable relations since his patterns of behavior ("community adventures") are in keeping with the perceived role of CLP. There will be no perceived "deviousness" in these actions since the CLP will not be obligated to work both sides of the fence as the present situation forces the team leaders to do.

A secondary outcome of adding a CLP might be to lessen the threat of "community" to the team leaders and to allow them to move more freely, thereby assisting the CLP without having the formal role and without feeling role conflict with the faculty. For example, the team leader will not have to make total commitments to a number of sub-communities, thereby jeopardizing his position with the faculty and possibly, at a later time, losing credibility with the community. The relations with the interns could be helped since the team leader can retain rapport with them in keeping with an institutional role expectation and thus retain credibility.

Of course, the relationship between team leader and CLP will be a crucial one. There must be a recognition of the division of labor but at the same time a recognition of need for close cooperation. A real danger lies in the possible jockeying for loyalty or affection of the interns and the ability of both team leader and CLP to reconcile between themselves the normative structure of the diverse reference groups which would be operating with different intensities on them both.

Training with Same Organization

The primary tasks of a training program for team leaders would involve:

1. Cognitive awareness of the sociological dynamics of the team leader's job.

2. Experiences to build effective understanding between team leader and intern.

3. Practical advice regarding the work of the team leader.

Cognitive Awareness

Building cognitive awareness of the sociological dynamics is probably the easiest of the tasks. Anyone can agree about the need to bring the community and school into a working relationship and the need to use the community as a teaching-learning experience for interns and students in the school. It is also probably the least effective way to improve anyone's on-the-job functioning. Still it is necessary to know the possible effects social structure has on one's self and others.

Recommendations:

1. Increased training in sociology with an emphasis initially on "what happens" to people in organizational structures, formal and informal groupings, role conflicts and the possible causes of the conflicts.

2. Decreasing the "romantic" aspects of community training and increasing the understanding of the political aspects of community. Included would be an analysis of the community structure by power groups, the community as a self-serving institution, an analysis of multi-communities, and interests of community power structures.

3. An analysis of the school as a social-political organization of self-serving power groups, motivating factors in teachers' and administrators' reactions to other groups, and the possible legitimate conflicts between "community" and school.

4. The intensive study of team leaders' and interns' place in this complex of groups.

Affective Understanding

Along with the cognitive training, there needs to be an extensive and intensive effort to prepare the team leaders for:

1. The shock of reference group conflict

2. Role conflict

3. Not being liked in a personal and professional manner

4. Greater sensitivity to the expectations of the multi-communities, the school staff, and the interns

5. Understanding their own "failing of will."

Implicit in the above are training experiences which include many kinds of simulation experiences, role playing, and exposure to highly structured "threatening" kinds of situations. Counselors should be made available to the team leaders undergoing this type of training, and interns and team leaders should be dispersed periodically among the different simulated groups in order to discourage too quick a formation of normative structures peculiar to a group.

The rationale behind the above recommendation lies in the hope that if one knows "reality" and understands what is happening to them or others, while they may not like it, they can cope with it without retreating. Further, if one is hit hard with affective understandings, within a framework of support, they will be better able to sustain themselves in their field work.

TEAM LEADERS AND IN-SERVICE EDUCATION: THE TEACHER AS A CURRICULUM AGENT

ABSTRACT

In this paper we defend the position that, in effect, the teacher is the curriculum. This being so, the need for team leaders and those who would influence team leaders is to devise a system for continuous professional growth. The application of such a system would, to a large extent, need to be situationally specific.

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TEAM LEADERS AND IN-SERVICE EDUCATION: THE TEACHER AS A CURRICULUM AGENT

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We have always known, but rarely acknowledged, that for all practical purposes the teacher is the curriculum. One need only review the events of the last decade in curriculum development to confirm this assumption. Whether the curriculum change has been a matter of presenting new subject matter, for example, the organization of a new course in anthropology or economics; or a new arrangement of old knowledge, an emphasis perhaps on the key concepts which give a subject its structure; or the introduction of a new method of teaching, substituting inductive for deductive learning serves as a case in point; precisely the same principle has prevailed: it is the teacher who must interpret the new curriculum, and thus whatever the teacher does, becomes, in point of fact, the curriculum.

Such a circumstance is hardly surprising, for in most human endeavor a tool is no better than the talent of its user. If, therefore, we acknowledge the teacher's importance as the interpreter of the curriculum, two propositions can be set forth: first, if the teacher's interpretation is defective the merits of the curriculum will be diminished; second, if the teacher's interpretation is effective, the curriculum is likely to accomplish its objectives. Indeed, in the hands of a skilled practitioner, the benefits of a teaching program often exceed the potential envisioned by its designers. With these propositions as a point of departure, then, we can examine what has happened in the curriculum development of the recent past.

Constraining Curriculum Development

Curiously, few programs appear to have fulfilled their promise. Educational changes are intended to overcome specified problems, and it generally is possible to determine, in the main, whether or not these problems have been corrected. In virtually no instance are the creators of a new curriculum willing to admit that their creation yielded maximum fruit. Moreover, these sentiments are corroborated by the reactions of school practitioners and by evaluations in the field.

The point can be illustrated with an almost limitless variety of examples. In the late 1950's, for instance, educational television was heralded as the salvation of public education. It would soon be possible, the advocators reasoned, to bring the world's most gifted teachers, through a television set, to every child in the land. Powerful lessons could be prepared with infinite care and reused again and again. When all was said and done, however, educational television, like its forerunners, the phonograph and the

radio, never quite revolutionized the learning industry. There were, of course, many contributing factors, but the difficulties teachers faced in trying to fit a televised lesson into the context of a live one, was perhaps the most critical disadvantage.

The record of team teaching provides another classic example of the significance of the teacher's role as a curriculum agent. While team teaching has succeeded in some places and failed in others, interpersonal conflict among team members has proven to be a universal problem. Even though they work with the same instructional materials, strive toward the same objectives, and use the same procedures, teachers tend to interpret their function in different ways. If one were to judge team teaching as a major reform of teaching methodology, it would be seen as something of a miscarriage. In those instances in which team teaching has been tried and abandoned, or where it has been allowed to limp feebly along, the contradictory attitudes and beliefs of the teachers themselves have constituted the principle dilemma.

During the 1960's there was a renewed emphasis upon "process" teaching. Based upon the notion that the way in which an idea is learned often is important as the idea itself, teachers were urged to use subject matter as a means to a dual end: increasing the child's knowledge and his mastery of a general intellectual skill. Since a play by Shakespeare can be taught through a great variety of processes (the learner can watch the play, read the play, analyze the plot, and so on), teachers were advised to select the teaching process which offered an optimum balance between content and process learning. Once again, the results were disappointing. Logical in its conception, fertile in its potential, and easy to exploit, process teaching has never really taken hold. Teachers, conditioned by their habits and motivated by their biases through self-choice, arbitrarily reduce the vast range of alternatives to one or two options. With some cooks, every dish seems to taste the same. So it is in teaching--with some teachers every lesson is imprinted with the same character.

Illustrative Research Findings

The power of the teacher as a translator of the curriculum is perhaps most dramatically illustrated in the individual preference for affective or cognitive teaching. For some years I served as the Director of the Center for Coordinated Education, an organization on the Santa Barbara campus at the University of California, concerned with the study of school improvement. In the course of our research we became interested in the relative emphasis a particular teacher places on the factual and emotional aspects of a lesson. An instructional unit which could serve as the basis of a study was, therefore, developed. We found, unexpectedly, a rather extraordinary variation among teachers.

The unit involved an extensive treatment of World War II. Beginning with a political analysis of the causes of conflict and ending with a sociological investigation of the war's aftermath, the materials treated a number of the war's aspects: the issue of isolationism, the military strategies, the strategic battles, the economics of war finance, internal security, and so on. For each phase of the unit the teachers were provided with a great

deal of material on both the cognitive and affective facets of the topic. Furthermore, in the accompanying teaching guides, the teachers were given sequenced teaching activities dealing with both the emotional and the intellectual dimensions of the particular issue. There was deliberate overload in the unit so that the teacher was forced to choose from various alternatives in order to complete the instruction in the specified time. Every teacher was given complete freedom in planning the instruction. To eliminate test influence, the teachers were asked to study the materials in advance and to pre-construct their own examinations. Our objective, in short, was to discover whether the teachers would favor either facts or feelings in their instruction, or whether they would strive for a balance between the two.

The cognitive elements (facts, principles, concepts, and the like) were given dominant emphasis by two thirds of the teachers. Moreover, the degree of emphasis generally was extreme. In the tests they devised, for example, some teachers asked for as many as 30 to 40 dates while others asked for none. Some teachers devoted a full week to the Nazi persecution of the Jews whereas others ignored the matter completely. Of greatest significance, however, we found in the end that there were almost as many different courses as there were teachers. Each, in effect, imbued the material with his own attitudes and values, using his classroom to act out his own motives and intentions.

Somewhat later we did another study on affect and cognition in the classroom, one which got at the incompatibility between the psychological needs of students and teachers. We devised two scales, one for students and one for their teachers, which measured preferences in classroom climate. Put simply, we asked teachers about the kinds of learners they preferred and about the sort of learning situation in which they liked to work. Similarly, we asked their students about the kinds of teachers they preferred and about the classroom atmosphere in which they felt most comfortable. Since we wanted to compare the responses of teachers with those of their students, we gave the teacher scale early in the year and the student scale near the end of the year in order to reduce as much as possible bias in response. During the study we also obtained data on the students' intelligence, learning achievement, classroom behavior, and personality.

The results were somewhat upsetting. There was, for example, a clear implication that in the typical classroom the child must adjust to the idiosyncrasies of the teacher rather than the reverse. Students who do poorly despite a good learning aptitude invariably evidenced nonconforming, defensive behavior. Their teachers, moreover, tended to regard them as disruptive, dull, or both. But of greatest importance, there was considerable evidence that the classroom needs of teachers and their students were frequently in conflict. Teachers, to a large extent, used the cognitive achievement of their students as a means of satisfying their own need for a sense of adequacy and competence. Which is to say that the educational system esteems cognitive learning and rewards teachers who are most adept at enabling students to attain high scores on achievement tests. As a result, students who learn lessons easily and who are motivated to do well on tests will be prized by teachers.

In contrast, most children are less interested in cognition per se than in a classroom which is emotionally satisfying. There are, of course, some variations. The college-bound youngster is likely, when he arrives at the high school, to place greater value on intellectual accomplishment. And upon occasion one finds a child who loves knowledge for its own sake. For the most part, however, children are interested in their internal security. The typical student wants, psychologically, to be a winner: He wants to be accepted by his friends and his teacher, to cope successfully with the requirements of classroom life, to reach a sense of personal worth, and to succeed rather than to fail.

Classrooms are dominated by teachers. Since children tailor their behavior to the situation in which they find themselves, they try, logically, to satisfy their needs within the game rules made by the teacher. Thus, the student who learns his nouns and pronouns does so not because he considers such learning valuable, but because the learning will bring him the teacher-given affective rewards he wants. Conversely, the child who fails does so not because he wants to be a loser, but because he is unable to win under the rules the teacher has established. All this implies that healthy interaction between teacher and child is often a matter of chance. Where the psychological needs of teacher and child conflict, the probability of disaster is high. Where, on the other hand, their respective needs are reasonably congruent, the probability that each will find school satisfying is greatly increased.

The Essential Autonomy of Teaching

We need to recognize, then, that in the implementation of a curriculum we cannot avoid the impact of the teacher's personality. Not only are teachers autonomous, but they also are engaged in highly ambiguous craft. True, they are influenced by the role and work style assigned to them by the system. But their behavior really is controlled by far more powerful forces: Teachers are directed by their own desires, own needs, and self-interests. Teachers, in brief, are human. Plainly, therefore, irrespective of curricular goals, the quality of learning depends upon the teacher's performance. And, in turn, the teacher's performance is essentially a manifestation of his own idiosyncratic nature.

It is for precisely this reason that there can be no "teacher-proof" curriculum. For if we wish to take advantage of human sensitivity, we must also take the risk of human subjectivity. We all have ambitions and behave in ways to satisfy these ambitions. The tired teacher, out of physical need, omits a portion of the lesson. The insecure teacher, out of social need, is at times overpermissive. Another teacher, out of egoistic need, changes the curriculum in accordance with the dictates of his judgment. And every teacher upon occasion finds his disparate needs in conflict, one with the other.

In his perceptive analysis of social behavior, Louch[1] suggests that proper human action ought to vary according to circumstance. Pointing out that the motives underlying behavior are individually determined, he faults the efforts of social scientists to devise a general theory of social action. As we engage life, not only do we make private moral assessments, but like the child in school, we base our tactics on the prevailing conditions. So, it seems to me, in teaching there is no way to avoid the gains and losses of free human action. Clearly, we ought to help a teacher deepen his perceptions, increase his awareness, perfect his skills, and sharpen his sense of purpose. All of these, however, do not add up to a universal prescription for teaching. Just as the physician must qualify the use of a drug for a particular individual even within the range of standard practice, so we must allow for exceptions to standard practice in teaching.

In the study on affective-cognitive balance among teachers, as an illustration, it would have been most worthwhile to have organized a program which made it possible for the teachers to establish an equilibrium in their teaching. Unhappily, we did not know enough then--nor do we know enough now--to do so. If we could have mounted such a program, nonetheless, many teachers would undoubtedly have altered their classroom behavior. Some, however, might not have changed at all. And, conceivably, because of their personal assessment of their situation, such stubbornness might have been entirely appropriate.

The downfall of much attempted curriculum reform, to sum up, was in large measure a consequence of improper usage by teachers. Lesson plans and a course of study are literally at the mercy of the teacher. At best they are tools to be used by a craftsman. If they are to be useful, the craftsman must like them, value their utility, and master the intricacies of their use. Thus the teacher is the indispensable curriculum agent.

As the reform movement continues, and as we begin to draw increasingly on educational technology, the teacher's role as interpreter is likely to become more important. Since we at long last seem to have accepted the fact that children learn at different rates and in different ways, there is a demand to provide alternate instructional procedures to teachers. As the prerogatives increase, teachers must make a greater number of decisions about the classrooms they manage. The personalization of learning, that is, the tailoring of methods and materials to the pace of the individual child calls for judgments which are much more delicate. Teachers will have access to a greater range of diagnostic instruments; their power to influence the curriculum will increase.

Finally, it is likely that the greatest good in the new technology will lie in its capacity to make teaching more precise. As the new systems are refined, the danger of teaching the child something he already knows, or of trying to teach him something for which he is not yet ready and thus cannot understand, will be sharply reduced. Note, however, the teacher's role as

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[1]A. R. Louch. Explanation and Human Action. Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1966, Chapter X.

a curricular agent will be extended, and his control over the learning situation will grow correspondingly.

Even if the organization of schooling were to be changed dramatically, it is doubtful whether we could diminish the significance of the teacher's role. So-called "free schools" have of late begun to attract a good deal of attention. The kind of classroom envisioned by Kohl, Goodman, Postman, Holt, to cite the better known radicals, is even more dependent upon a skilled, sensitive teacher than the one we now have. When Kohl, as a case in point, says to the teacher, "For ten minutes cease to be a teacher and be an adult with young people, a resource available if needed and possibly a friend, but not a director, a judge, or an executioner,"[2] he is after something more than a well intentioned, warm-blooded tutor. The sort of "openness" he seeks cannot be initiated by a person who has not already come to terms with himself. Kohl wants, in other words, a teacher who has sufficiently matured so that it is unnecessary to use the children as a foil for his own hangups.

Similarly, when Holt argues that "education is something that a child acquires for himself," and that "the teacher's task is to give children as much help and guidance as they need and ask for, listen respectfully when they feel like talking, and then get out of the way,"[3] the implied simplicity is deceptive. "Giving children as much help and guidance as they need," for example, is a fine spun pedagogical stroke, one which has forever eluded the committed teacher. It is a skill not easily mastered, and its correllary, knowing when to guide and when to direct is equally tricky. We cannot undercut the impact of the teacher or reduce the necessity for technical skill by taking education outside the classroom door, substituting new objectives for old, increasing or decreasing the degree of instructional rigidity, or by any other arbitrary manipulation.

So, we have no choice but to concede the reality of teacher autonomy. But what is the substance of this autonomy? From whence comes a teacher's point of view? How do his techniques and his egoistic needs meld? What forces shape his values?

Values and Teaching

We are most apt to base our values on the experiences which have touched our own lives. Like anyone else, a teacher may fashion values for himself out of misperception as easily as out of truth. When one's values, however, come from a logical consideration of the available evidence, they are more likely to be valid. Recently there has been a flood of proposals for a curriculum which circumvents teachers' values. Those in support of this point of view question whether teachers' values ought to be permitted to intrude into the instruction. We would do well to recall that all knowledge

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[2]Herbert Kohl. The Open Classroom. New York: Vintage Press, 1970.

[3]John Holt. The Underachieving School. New York: Pitman, 1969.

is a form of belief. Beliefs place the world where it is; they identify objects, ideas, and feelings about which there is agreement, and they specify acceptable actions. Values, on the other hand, are the filters through which beliefs are passed; they represent the activation of both the cognitive and the affective domains. Cognitive functioning and affective functioning are, therefore, counterparts. What we call "feeling" is really a part of believing and knowing. Feeling expresses itself in attitudes; and attitudes are values acted out or made behavioral in a specific time or specific situation.

Because they serve as the linkage between objects and concepts, values begin in the cognitive process. They are not attained by thinking through. Quite the reverse, thinking is done within our system of values, for such a system is--in Allport's accurate phrase--"meanings perceived as related to the self."[4] The raw material of thought--our sensory data--is sorted out by our values. Some years ago Bruner studied a group of children to determine whether what they saw was affected by what they valued. He used both grey cardboard discs and coins for the experiment.[5] The children "saw" the coins as larger than the cardboard discs, and they "saw" the more valuable of the coins as larger than the less valuable. Like objects, action is also perceived and interpreted on the basis of values: the teacher who values interdependence will not find the same meaning in a situation as the one who values individualism.

As the foundation of conscious or unconscious choice, values direct our thoughts into particular areas. They label, as Whitehead said, "matters of importance" as opposed to matters of mere fact. By providing a framework for perception and knowledge, values thus determine whether a thought will be thought, whether an experience will be perceived, and how it will be perceived.

The tendency to value an object or an idea, either positively or negatively, is prejudiced by a cognitive superstructure which is made up of beliefs about the object or the idea. Consequently, whether one values, how one values, and how strongly one values are all correlated with the stuff of the accompanying cognitive structure. We might say that human emotion and reason together are a set of interacting phenomena. Langer believes, for instance, that cognition should be subsumed under feeling. "Value exists only where there is consciousness. Where nothing is felt, nothing matters."[6] When feeling has been acquired, a feeling of trust, as an illustration, socially available beliefs will rationalize it (the affect)--for example, "Children can teach themselves." Beliefs translate, integrate, assimilate, and accommodate these feelings into the cognitive schemata of the person. In this way, attitudes and values born of feeling build an intellectual framework and, in return, are supported by its scaffolding.

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[4]Gordon Allport. The Person in Psychology. Boston: Beacon Press, 1968.

[5]Jerome Bruner and Cecille Goodman. "Value and Need as Organizing Factors in Perception," Journal of Abnormal Psychology, Volume 72, 1, January 1947, 33-44.

[6]Suzanne Langer. Mind, An Essay on Human Feelings, Volume 1. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1967.

How one feels about something, how strongly, and in what order of importance are inexplicably interwoven with one's cognitive framework which is, in effect, the map of reality that is each person's view of the universe. Structurally, the map changes as the individual matures; its conceptual foundations move from specificity, concreteness, and immediacy to the more abstract and remote.

The reception we afford facts, as a result, is conditioned by our attitudes and beliefs. What should be true is never completely separated from what is true, but truth and falsity--that is, beliefs--are a part of values, ideas which are subject to empirical verification in a particular situation at a particular time and place. Under most circumstances, the greater the strength of our values, the more likely it is that statements which endorse them will be regarded as fact. Zeigler notes an example in which teachers had difficulty discriminating belief from fact when their democratic values were threatened by the statement, "the American form of government may not be perfect, but it is the best type of government yet devised by man."[7]

Why do we worry about controversial issues in the curriculum? In the main, it is because they are accompanied by attitude and value components. Meaningful information, in other words, is never pure. Certain ideas are feared or rejected because intuitively we suspect that their supporting facts carry attitudes and sponsor emotional responses which may lead to beliefs. This is what we mean when we speak of the cognitive acceptance of information. Rokeach has shown that people with closed belief systems avoid receiving facts (information) from authoritative sources. Because of their values, they refuse to consider intellectual ideas which may require them to adjust their thinking: "Ethnic prejudice and/or authoritarianism are significantly related to rigidity, concreteness, and narrowness of thinking and problem-solving and to premature closing of perception and distortion of memory."[8]

Our values help us determine what we accept or reject as appropriate thoughts or behavior toward other people, objects, and ideas. Once expressed, these values define for us what we are; for others they define what we would like ourselves and our world to be and, at least in part, what we actually believe it to be.

All of this leads to the postulation that teachers share many social values in common. Sociologically, these help to describe the group and its members; shared values provide, for all practical purposes, a conception of reality which is the shared mystique of the craft. Mutually held values provide a common cognitive reference for both perception and preference. These common denominators, resultingly, are the best clues to the ways in which teachers approach their task.

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[7]Harmon Zeigler. The Political Life of American Teachers. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1967.

[8]Milton Rokeach. The Open and Closed Mind. New York: Basic Books, 1960.

All of this leads inevitably to the nature of the relationship between teachers' values and the curriculum as well as to the more fundamental issue of whether teachers rule the system or whether, instead, the system rules teachers. Rozak has pointed out that experts and systems legitimize one another. We have, he says, been maneuvered into sustaining systems which our experts have created for us simply because we are afraid that we cannot survive without the system and afraid, too, that the system cannot survive without the experts. "Thus," he writes, "if we probe the technocracy in search of the peculiar power it holds over us, we arrive at the midst of objective consciousness. There is but one way of gaining access to reality--so the myth holds--and this is to cultivate a state of consciousness cleansed of all subjective distortion, all personal involvement. What flows from this state of consciousness qualifies as knowledge, and nothing else does."[9]

It may be that this is the root of a major error in our attempts to change the curriculum. Perhaps it is impossible to "cultivate a state of consciousness cleansed of all subjective distortion." If so, our assumption that the system dominates the teacher is counterfeit. Classrooms are not factories in which parts are fitted together according to a pre-arranged plan. Rather, they are places where human beings interact, where love, hate, despair, and exultation are the natural by-products of the affairs that go on. Teaching and learning are bound up in unclean consciousness, in the distorted perceptions and emotional infirmities which are characteristic of the species.

This being the case, it is folly to try to change the educational system without attempting also to change teaching; and it would be an even greater folly to attempt to change teaching without making due allowance for the prerequisite changes in those who teach. The curricular failures of the reform movement suggest that although we can prescribe the kind of instruction we want, we cannot prescribe what is learned. For what is learned can never be separated from what the teacher and child value. If, then, the teacher is the indispensable curriculum agent, the scant attention we have given to teachers' attitudes and beliefs, to the "subjective distortion" which is the offspring of their personal involvement, is little short of incredible. We seem to have assumed, naively, that by changing the curriculum we could change teaching. Teachers, happily, are not so made.

Consider, for example, the teacher who is 36 years old and has taught for, say, 15 years. His teaching reflects habits which have matured over time by attitudes which are the extract of his experience, by fundamental values which go beyond professional life and reach into the fiber of his personality, and by the practical requirements of his situation; that is, by the facilities, administration, and students which characterize the school in which he works. To hope that all of these things can be overshadowed by a new teaching guide is patently absurd. It is more likely that the new teaching guide will be overwhelmed by the sum of the other forces.

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[9]Theodore Rozak. The Making of a Counter Culture. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Anchor Books, 1969, pp. 207-208.

Whatever the change we seek, whether the objective is to make the curriculum more conservative, more radical, more prescriptive or less so, more cognitive or more affective, or even if we wish to do no more than introduce an instructional unit on pollution, we must in every instance reckon with the private behavioral system that motivates the individual teacher. If we deal with two teachers, there will be two systems to contend with, and if we deal with a thousand teachers, there will be a thousand such.

We come, as a result, to the conclusion that school improvement, curriculum reform, and teacher professional growth are all of a piece. Each is a part of a whole, interdependent, and an essential ingredient in educational change. In recent years there have been a goodly number of programs directed toward school improvement. An impressive amount of energy has been invested. What has been done in the way of enhancing teacher professional growth, however, leaves a great deal to be desired. No other educational artifact has as pejorative a reputation, as little respect, and as demeaning a history, as does in-service education. The problem vexes administrators as much as it disheartens teachers, and for all good reason: in-service education is the establishment's most conspicuous infirmity. Frail to the point of impotence, delinquent in both form and substance, it cannot even be described as being in a state of decay because it lacked organic vitality in the first place. And, yet, few things are as important to the welfare of learners.

Increasing Importance of Professional Growth

The need for teacher professional growth has become crucial for three primary reasons: first, since the teacher is the interpreter of the curriculum, all attempts to improve schooling come to their moment of truth when the teacher begins to teach. Second, substantial investments in research and development have resulted in a steady stream of educational innovations; used badly, innovations usually create more bad than good. If, in short, we fail to prepare teachers to make effective use of new instructional inventions, the money and energy invested in research and development will come to very little. Third, there is a staggering disparity between the best and the worst of the teaching that goes on. Generally, good teachers are very good, and bad teachers are very bad. There is, resultingly, a profound need to elevate the state of the art. If we were unable to distinguish between inferior and superior instruction, or if we did not understand the things that make one teacher effective and another ineffective, our present attitude toward professional growth would be understandable. It is because we do have the power to improve teaching performance that our failure of effort is so tragic.

What is needed, of course, is a formula which will permit us to devise a system for continuous teacher professional growth. By "system" I do not mean to imply that good teaching occurs in any one form, or that any particular procedure is, under all conditions, the best method of enhancing professional development. Fine teaching comes in many brands and, as in most human endeavor, the desired goal can be reached in a variety of ways. Rather, I mean to imply that since we cannot improve schooling without improving teaching, it would be sensible to test and perhaps catalogue successful mechanisms.

Such a system would need to have a number of specific characteristics. It would need, for example, to make it possible to provide teachers with a repertoire of skills that are generally useful. Thus, it would need to deal with specific teaching tasks and with the classroom situations in which they habitually occur. More specifically, such a system would be based upon growth activities which lead to a particular competence, which provide cumulative practice in developing the competence, which familiarize teachers with devices that can be used to examine student behavior so as to judge their own competence, and which allow teachers to recognize when an acquired competence should be invoked in the classroom.

Implications for Training Programs

The challenge to the leader in a Team Leadership Development Project, it seems to me, lies in the development, installation, and operation of such a system. I do not mean by this to suggest that each leader must invent his own wheel. A great many resources with which to carry on in in-service education are now available. Selecting the best of these, harnessing them to a team's particular objectives, and modifying them as circumstances require are worthy--and demanding--leadership tasks. The trick, obviously, is to aim at a manageable goal, pursue it with all due vigor, and measure the consequent degree of success on an honest and sharply defined yardstick.

Beyond this, of course, leaders (often in consort with their teams) also exploit their own creative capacities. Where there is a specialized purpose, say changing teachers' perceptions about the learning capabilities of ghetto children, a specific training apparatus might be designed. Here again, however, the basic rule of the game must apply: craftsmanship can only be acquired through deliberate practice. As a consequence, the training activity must use specific strategies to accomplish specific ends. Collectively, these "parts of the whole" eventually result in a system that enables teachers to acquire important pedagogical skills: diagnosing learning difficulties, reinforcing conceptual understanding, leading discussions, clarifying abstractions, and the like. These training devices, moreover, must be carefully constructed, refined through trial and error, and tested in various situations. For if they are not built with prudent care, they will lack the efficacy and vitality essential to their purpose. For it is this same lack of efficacy and vitality that brought us to our present sad state of affairs. We can do better.